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A total of approximately 36 representatives of state, interstate, and federal agencies; universities; national voluntary associations; industry; and the staff of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training participated in the conference with the purpose of exploring the area of inservice training for personnel working in the rehabilitation of the public offender. Papers presented in the document are: (1) "Overview of Inservice Training" by Carl Kludt, (2) "Training Methods" by Lyman Randall, (3) "Colorado Training Programs" by Howard Higman, (4) "Organizational Arrangements for Training" by David Jelinek, and (5) "Evaluation of Inservice Training" by Carol Weiss. A brief statement of reaction and a summary of discussion from the floor follow each paper. Recommendations, presented in an overall summary presentation, include: (1) emphasizing training for work in the community, (2) stressing skills for interagency goal-setting, (3) giving attention to the correctional worker's role with offenders, who presently do not get into the correctional system or are dropped out in the screening process, and (4) developing new approaches to inservice training evaluation. A summary of this report is available as VT 008 845. (JK)

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TARGETS FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING

JOINT COMMISSION
ON
CORRECTIONAL MANPOWER
AND TRAINING

The Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, incorporated in the District of Columbia, consists of nearly a hundred national, international, and regional organizations and public agencies which have joined together to attack one of the serious social problems of our day: How to secure enough trained men and women to bring about the rehabilitation of offenders through our correctional systems and thus prevent further delinquency and crime.

Recognizing the importance of this problem, the Congress in 1965 passed the Correctional Rehabilitation Study Act, which authorizes the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration to make grants for a broad study of correctional manpower and training. The Joint Commission is funded under this Act and through grants from private foundations, organizations, and individuals.

Commission publications available:

Differences That Make the Difference, papers of a seminar on implications of cultural differences for corrections. August 1967, 64 pp.

Second printing November 1967.

Targets for In-Service Training, papers of a seminar on in-service training. October 1967, 68 pp.

Second printing November 1967.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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TARGETS FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Report of a Seminar
Convened in Washington, D. C.
May 4-5, 1967 by the
Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
and the Joint Commission
on Correctional Manpower and Training

Joint Commission on Correctional
Manpower and Training
1522 K Street, N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20005

October 1967

FOREWORD

The need for effective in-service training is felt by every group of personnel working in the rehabilitation of the public offender. As new knowledge develops, it must be transmitted. New groups of personnel appear on the job regularly and require training. As the objectives in corrections change direction, training must translate that change for all workers in the field.

In order to explore the complex terrain of training, the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training convened a seminar in Washington, D. C., in May 1967. The meeting was the responsibility of Benjamin Frank and Nick Pappas, director and assistant director respectively of the Commission's task force on in-service training, recruitment, and retention of correctional personnel. Assistance in planning was given by Rudy Sanfilippo, director of the task force on prospects and perspectives for corrections, and by William F. Meredith, director of the task force on strategies for action. Dr. Frank chaired the meeting. The report was edited by Roma K. McNickle.

Participants represented a wide variety of interests. Correctional administrators from eastern states were invited to act as sounding boards for the field. Also invited were personnel from regional offices of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency and the Council of State Governments, and the regional organizations for higher education — the New England Board of Higher Education, the Southern Regional Education Board, and the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education. These persons often serve as consultants in their respective regions, and they will be called upon increasingly to provide advice and direction for in-service training for corrections.

Presented in the following pages are the papers given at the seminar, together with a brief introductory statement. The fact that speakers and discussants came from private industry, public agencies, private organizations, universities, and corrections indicates the variety of settings in which training takes place today.

The consensus was that the broad spectrum of experience reported would be useful to many groups who are interested in training. The Joint Commission believes that this publication, which results from the seminar, will have special

utility for training directors and administrators who have the difficult job of planning the in-service training of correctional personnel. The variety of approaches presented in the book will, it is hoped, give many ideas for a variety of training efforts.

The Joint Commission expresses its appreciation to all the participants. Mr. Carl Kludt has kindly given the Commission permission to use his copyrighted charts. Anyone wishing to reproduce them elsewhere must have the consent of the author.

Special appreciation is due to the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, which provided a grant to assist in financing the seminar.

A Commission member organization, the National Education Association, graciously made available the room in which the seminar met.

The Joint Commission is pleased to present this publication to the correctional community and to all persons elsewhere who are interested in training.

WILLIAM T. ADAMS
Associate Director
Joint Commission on Correctional
Manpower and Training

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INTRODUCTION

Benjamin Frank and Nick Pappas

In virtually every occupation and profession today, central themes of concern are the educational preparation, in-service training, and development of the manpower involved. In industry, the rapid advance of technology and automation has created a demand for higher levels of education and skills among workers. At the same time, the need for professionals and technicians in education, health, counseling, and the broad spectrum of other community services is growing faster than the educational system can produce them. At the national level, a great deal of effort is going into a continuous and long-range study of the manpower resources of the country. Along with this is being developed a national policy dealing with the upgrading of educational levels and skills as well as with the distribution and most effective utilization of national manpower resources. In effect, the manpower problem is becoming defined more in terms of an educational and training crisis than in terms of manpower shortages.

Corrections has not only been caught up in this complex of social and economic change but it is also feeling, more directly than in the past, the combined impact of new concepts and techniques in management, the technologies underlying the application of systems analysis to social problems, and the results of research on differential effectiveness of programs. Even the traditional boundaries which kept corrections confined within conventional limitations of institutions, probation, and parole are undergoing considerable reexamination. Implied in all of this change are some very critical issues relating to utilization of professional and nonprofessional personnel, the validity of existing formulas for staffing correctional agencies, and the kinds of in-service training that will contribute most effectively to the programmatic changes which seem imminent.

Among the major problems facing correctional administrators, in-service training undoubtedly has a very high priority. In-service training is both a basic function of management and an essential factor in the solution of correctional manpower problems. From this point of view, the concept of in-service training assumes more sophisticated proportions and reaches beyond conventional practice of on-the-job training.

In-service training, although it focuses on present problems, is also concerned with the future. The training process is both a means of achieving immediate goals and a method of preparing personnel so that they will have

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Mr. Frank is director and Mr. Pappas assistant director of the Joint Commission's task force on recruitment, in-service training, and retention of correctional personnel.

the flexibility to modify their job behavior in line with future requirements. In this sense, in-service training is not a one-time event in the career of the employee but a vehicle for continuous growth.

So viewed, in-service training becomes a method of achieving planned change in both the employee and the correctional agency. The manager is central to this change and must be involved in effecting it if in-service training is to have relevance.

The importance of and present concern for in-service training gave rise to the seminar reported in this publication. The major focus was on the definition and objectives of in-service training, the problems involved in the selection of training methods, and the evaluation of training programs. The intent was not to develop specific content for in-service training programs but rather to suggest some general principles and guidelines for planning such programs for correctional agencies.

An Overview of In-Service Training: Definitions, Objectives, and Adaptations

Carl B. Kludt

The Systems Approach

First, I want to explain what is meant by "systems approach." This is a term you hear often nowadays. It is aerospace language, but there is really nothing new about it. It is simply a way of organizing one's thinking, a way of organizing a logical approach to the solution of a problem. In this case, the problem would be how to set up an in-service training program.

Figure 1 shows systems relationships, using a three-level breakdown into system, subsystem, and unit. The first example shows a TV set as the system, the video circuit as the subsystem, and a unit as the picture tube. This could be broken down further into sub-unit assemblies. The second uses the breakdown in terms of a program, with the objective as the system, goals as the subsystem, and targets as the units. Still another example is a game like football, where the objective is to win, the goal is to make touchdowns, and the unit is the play. In terms of the systems approach to training, we can think of the training program broken down into projects and then into action units.

Figure 2 illustrates the process of developing a training program. In this diagram, the arrows move clockwise around to four major steps: research, development, implementation, and evaluation. You will notice that the process of developing a program begins with research and an arrow goes right back to research. In a good training program (you will remember that by program I mean the whole effort, the whole system), when you get to evaluation you have to do more research in order to revise the program so that it does the job. Developing an in-service training program is therefore a continuous process.

Kinds of In-Service Training

There are five kinds of in-service training: attitudinal, organizational, managerial, training for professional staff, and vocational training. I list attitudinal training first because persons come on our staffs through the indoctrination or orientation road. But it is my opinion that, in orientation or indoctrination training, in essence you are *not* orienting the employee to the company; you are *not* telling him about its benefits; you are *not* really answering his questions. What you are actually trying to do is to develop a productive attitude by means of what we call orientation. The truth of the matter is that trainees will remember only 10 percent of what they are told and will ask about these things again and again. The orientation-indoctrination for the new employee is really to set a productive attitude.

Aspects of a Job

Every job can be divided into three parts: the specialty of the individual; the administration, or mechanics, of the job; and the "people aspect" of the job. Any program of training you set up for any group must take into consideration these three aspects.

Mr. Kludt is executive director of the community affairs program of the American Society for Training and Development.

Figure 1

SYSTEMS RELATIONSHIPS

System	T V	Objective	Win	Program	Program
Subsystem	Video	Goal	Touchdown	Project	Vocational Area
Unit	Picture Tube	Target	Play	Action Unit	Workshop/Seminar

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The specialty of the individual has to do with the skills required in any particular field of work. In the case of a stenographer, it is typing, shorthand, and filing. In the case of an engineer, it is mathematics and design.

The administration or mechanics of the job must also be broken down and carefully considered. The specialty of the manager, for instance, is to know how to get information, to organize, control, and delegate. The mechanics of the manager's job involves paperwork mostly, but he must have a program to get the paperwork done.

And then there is that area which is very difficult for most of us, the people aspect of the job which is always the X factor in every organization. I'm talking about the way people feel, the way they work with each other, the interpersonal relationships. These are the relationships that have to do with attitudes, morale, and motivation. About 85 percent of the cost of most organizations is in the people area.

Attitudinal Training

A good example of job-related attitudes is what happened in our company about three years ago when we were trying to change employment practices regarding the hiring of persons from minority groups, mainly Negroes and Mexican-Americans. I gathered together the personnel interviewers in our employment section for some T (Training) Group discussions. The question was: How do I act when somebody from a minority group comes in asking for a job? These sessions were set up to help the trainees do everything they could to keep from acting in a discriminatory way. This was really attitudinal training for these people, to help them understand the bias in their attitudes. We probably did not change any prejudices, but we did change behavior. You cannot dig into a person's psyche and remove his prejudices and ways of thinking by training him. All you can do is to make him aware of how he can perform more effectively on the job.

Attitudinal training must be related to performance on the job. If a girl wears a kookie hair-do and she is doing a good job in the back office where few people see her, we really have no right to ask her to change her hair-do. We had one such case. When changes were made, the girl was transferred to one of the front offices, where she handled educational reimbursement programs. Because she was now meeting and dealing with many people, we could talk with her about her appearance and attitudes on the job. If we had done it before, we would have had rebellion and resistance, because appearance and attitudes were not related to her performance on the previous job.

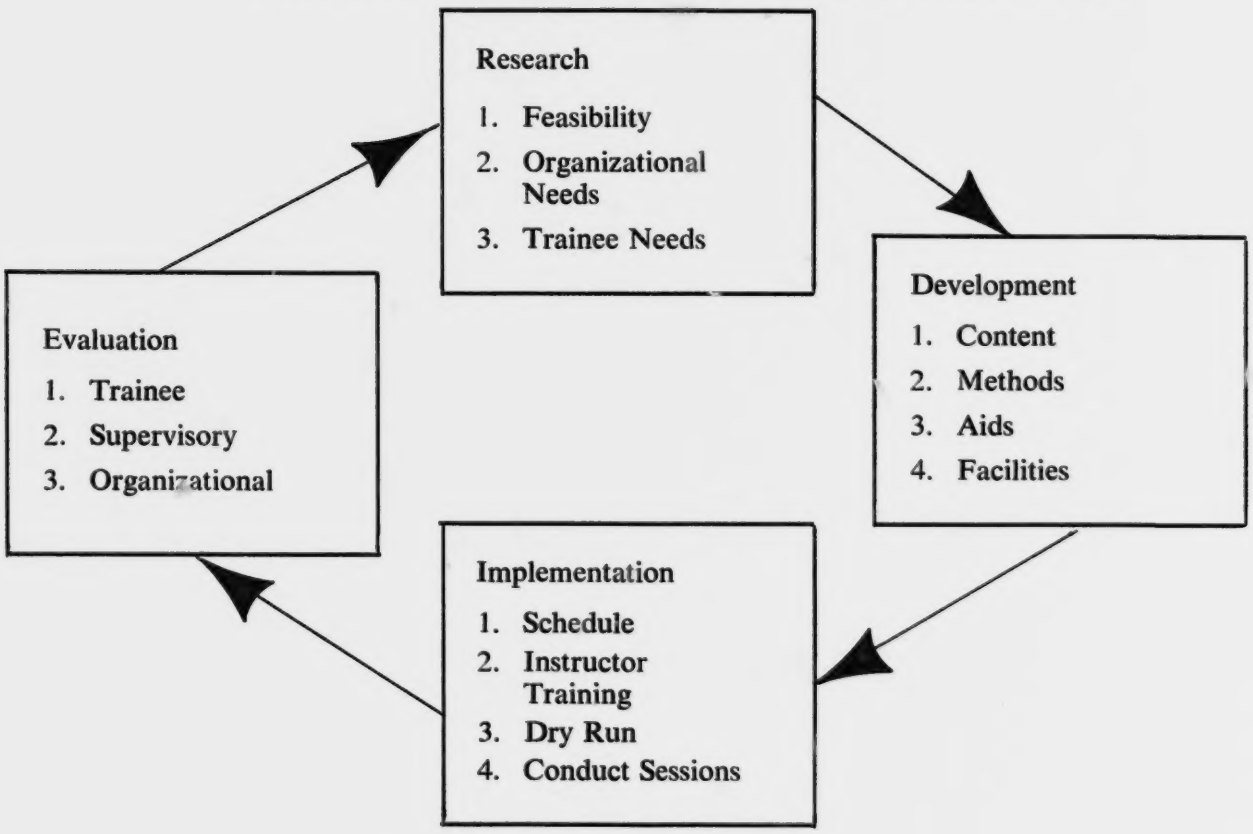
Setting Objectives

Figures 1 and 2 use the terminology of objectives, goals, and targets. Objectives should be defined in terms of behavioral change; the action to be taken and the end result expected. "Efficiency," for example, is not a good objective because it does not define any action or end result.

The same principle applies to the definition of goal and target. These are subdivisions of the overall objective. Some years ago a large industrial corporation was conducting studies of goal-setting by managers. They set up two groups of managers. One group was to set goals for their operations and was told that they would be evaluated at the end of the year to see how well they had achieved the goals. The other group was also instructed to set their goals and told that they would not be evaluated but that each individual manager would decide for himself whether his goals had been met. The

Figure 2

DEVELOPMENT OF A TRAINING PROGRAM



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experiment showed that the group that was evaluated and the group that evaluated themselves showed equally good performance improvement. It proved also that the process of setting goals was most important in itself.

A goal-oriented function will always outperform a non-goal-oriented function. Training programs with well-defined objectives, goals, and action units will outperform a training program where you get people together just to tell them all about it.

Determining Feasibility

After having established the objectives, goals, and action units, the next element in the development of a training program is the research phase. The first step is to determine whether a particular training program is feasible.

I shall give you an example from a program called Individualized Preparation for Employment Project (IPEP) which I will discuss later. This is a program to prepare hard-core unemployed for jobs. The first thing in my feasibility study was to contact employers in the community to find out whether the jobs were available. If we were going to train for employment, there must be jobs. Otherwise, a training program for employment would not be feasible. This may sound ridiculously rudimentary, but many programs are started to train for jobs that do not exist.

Another aspect of feasibility is the acceptance of the program on the part of those to be trained. In IPEP, we went directly to the neighborhood people and asked them: If this program of training for employment were made available and if the jobs were available, would you, the unemployed and the underemployed, come into the program?

It isn't feasible to set up a program which will be rejected from the start by the people you want to train. In other words, part of the feasibility question is: Can the end results be obtained, and will the trainees accept what you are trying to do? Do they see this as one of their goals? When you have conflicting goals, the result is chaos. There has to be a stake for the trainee in the training. He has to see himself as benefiting from the training offered. This is part of the feasibility study too.

We have talked about feasibility and trainee needs as steps in the research phase of program development. There are also organizational needs to be considered but these are more closely related to organization objectives. Of course, the research phase cannot be extended over too long a period, and often some arbitrary decisions for action and getting started are necessary.

Development of the Program

The development phase of a training program centers mostly around content, methods, and the physical environment in which the training is to be conducted. The most important, however, are the problems of content and methods. These we shall talk about later.

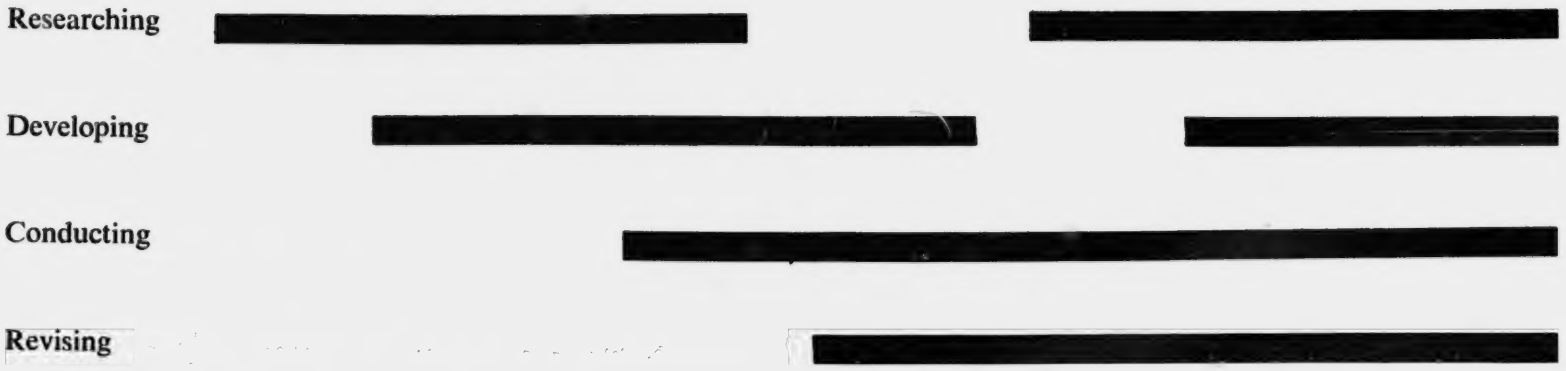
The third box in Figure 2 is Implementation. Right away the scheduling problem appears. Careful attention to details of scheduling will prevent a lot of mix-ups and problems later on.

The importance of the preparation of the training instructor cannot be overemphasized. His qualifications, his knowledge of the content and objectives of the program and of the organization and his skill in using a variety of training methods must be assured.

The dry run is probably the most neglected part of the implementation of the program. That is why the first series of a program is usually so much

Figure 3

TRAINING PROGRAM PLANNING



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inferior to the next series. The dry run group should include some management decision-makers who can say, "No, this doesn't go toward our objectives." It should also include some sample trainees who can say, if necessary, "This won't do. They won't buy this." The dry run is really a way of getting some feedback from the sessions. You set up some inputs and get fast feedback.

Evaluation of Training Programs

The fourth box in the diagram is Evaluation, and this is a truly tough problem. Even in industry where you can measure in terms of costs and profits, it is difficult to say how much is due to the training program. When profits go up, it may be that business is good or that training is good. The manager can say, "We did a better job of managing." And the training man can seldom really prove that it was the training program that helped do the trick. What you get by way of evaluation comes from the trainees themselves, from the supervisors and managers, and from organizational trends.

In Figure 3, you see how the steps overlap. No program works out exactly as you planned it, but if you don't plan it, it will not work well at all. So, in beginning to plan, you start with the researching phase which at some point begins to overlay the development stage.

As soon as you start getting information input, you start developing materials that will meet the needs or answer the questions raised by the input information. The basic reason for the research step is to find out what the needs are. This enables you to develop the content and then select the best methods. Then you start the program, but the research is still going on. The reason for this is that, as you conduct the first sessions (the dry runs), you get many kinds of input that call for changes and improvements. In this way, you should be evaluating and revising even before you are halfway through the program.

The thing to keep in mind is that *the job of program building and implementing is never done.* The objectives may remain the same. But the environment of the program may change; the kind of people you are working with may change. Many other factors and situations come up which require revisions and adaptations in the program. If any part of a program does not seem to contribute to your objectives or to behavioral change, throw it out, no matter how much you personally may like it.

Figure 4 is an example of what is called a PERT [1] chart of a training program in operation. It puts together in a model everything we have talked about thus far. In the process of conducting the program, you can get evaluations or feedback in two ways. One is statistical: how many completed the program; how many dropped out and why. The other is feedback from the trainees themselves. Don't let them get away from the last session or even intermediate sessions without doing two things. One is to fill out a very simple form with some "open" questions like: Have you used this on the job yet? How do you expect to use it? What changes would you make in the program? These kinds of questions will give you some idea of how the trainees rate the content and presentations as you move along in the program.

Training through IPEP

To conclude, I want to tell you more about the IPEP (Individualized Preparation for Employment Project) which I mentioned earlier. It may have some lessons for us.

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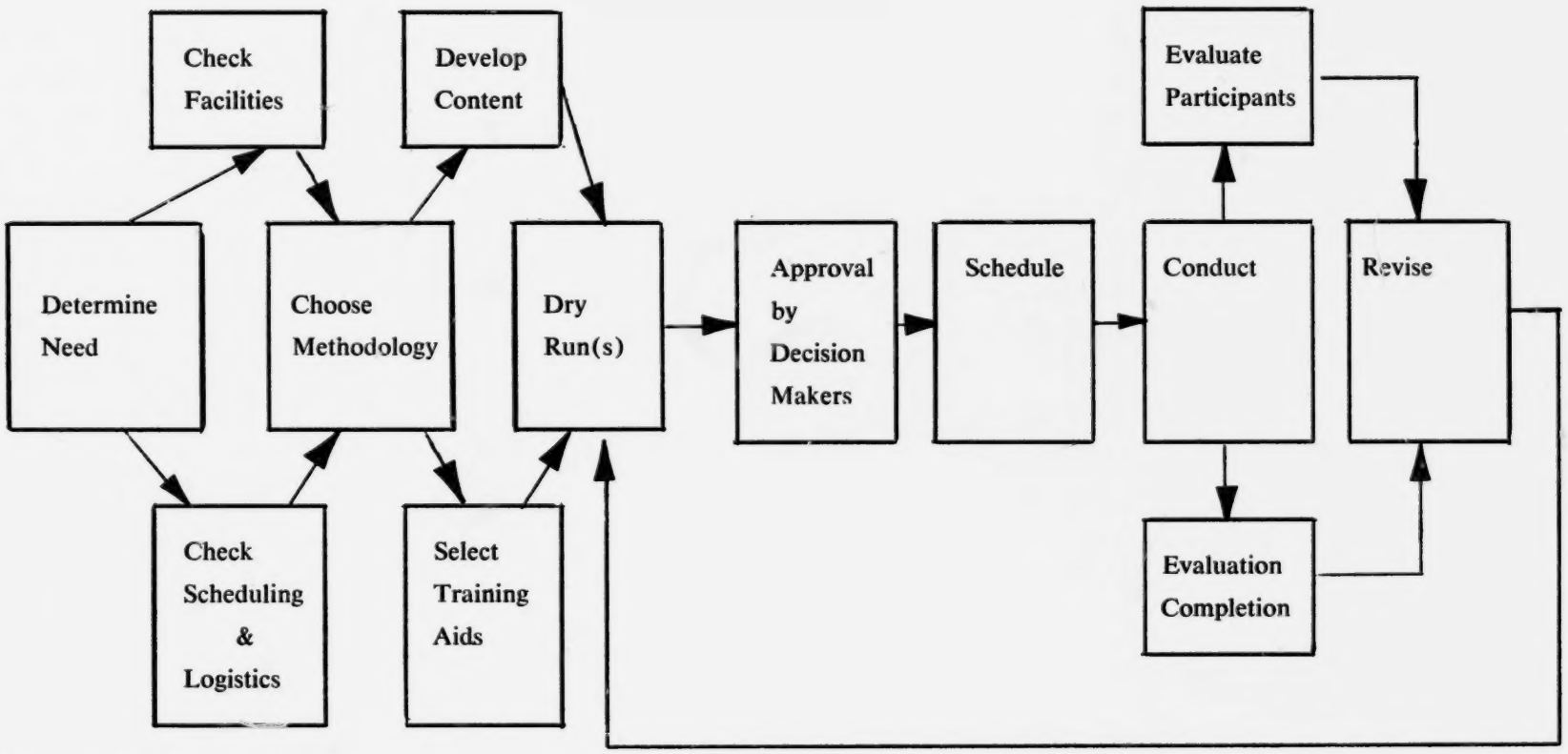
[1] PERT stands for Program Evaluation and Review Technique.

Figure 4

TRAINING PROGRAM UNIT PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION



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The American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) has over 6,000 members. They are all training and development managers, executives, and specialists. About 80 percent are in industry and commerce, and the rest are in government, universities, and consulting firms. I had started a community liaison task force in our Los Angeles chapter of the ASTD. I got a call from a friend in the Ford Foundation who said, "Carl, what would you do with a 30-year-old male Negro who has never had a job or supported a family, whose family is on welfare, and who hides out in the backyard whenever the welfare worker comes around?"

So, using the methods we've been talking about here, I designed a program for this person and others like him: the hard-core unemployed, the disadvantaged minority citizens, not only Negroes but also the Mexican-Americans who are another seriously disadvantaged group in California. (We have of course some poor Caucasians as well.)

What really is the problem here? In the analysis, I said, "My objective is to get this man into a productive job and into a position where he can help himself."

Then I went through the processes I talked about. Are there jobs to be had? Yes, there were thousands of jobs, some semi-skilled and some unskilled. The problem was that hard-core unemployed and disadvantaged people do exist and they can't relate even to a training program that's available in industry, because their level of achievement is too low. Now this is not necessarily their fault. The point is they haven't had the education; they don't know about the outside world. To them, time is when the sun comes up and when it goes down. Then they have a whole lot of attitudinal and knowledge deficiencies that must be tackled in pretraining and training programs in order to make them employable. So, the end goal or objective was to work out a system that would put them into jobs, jobs that were available.

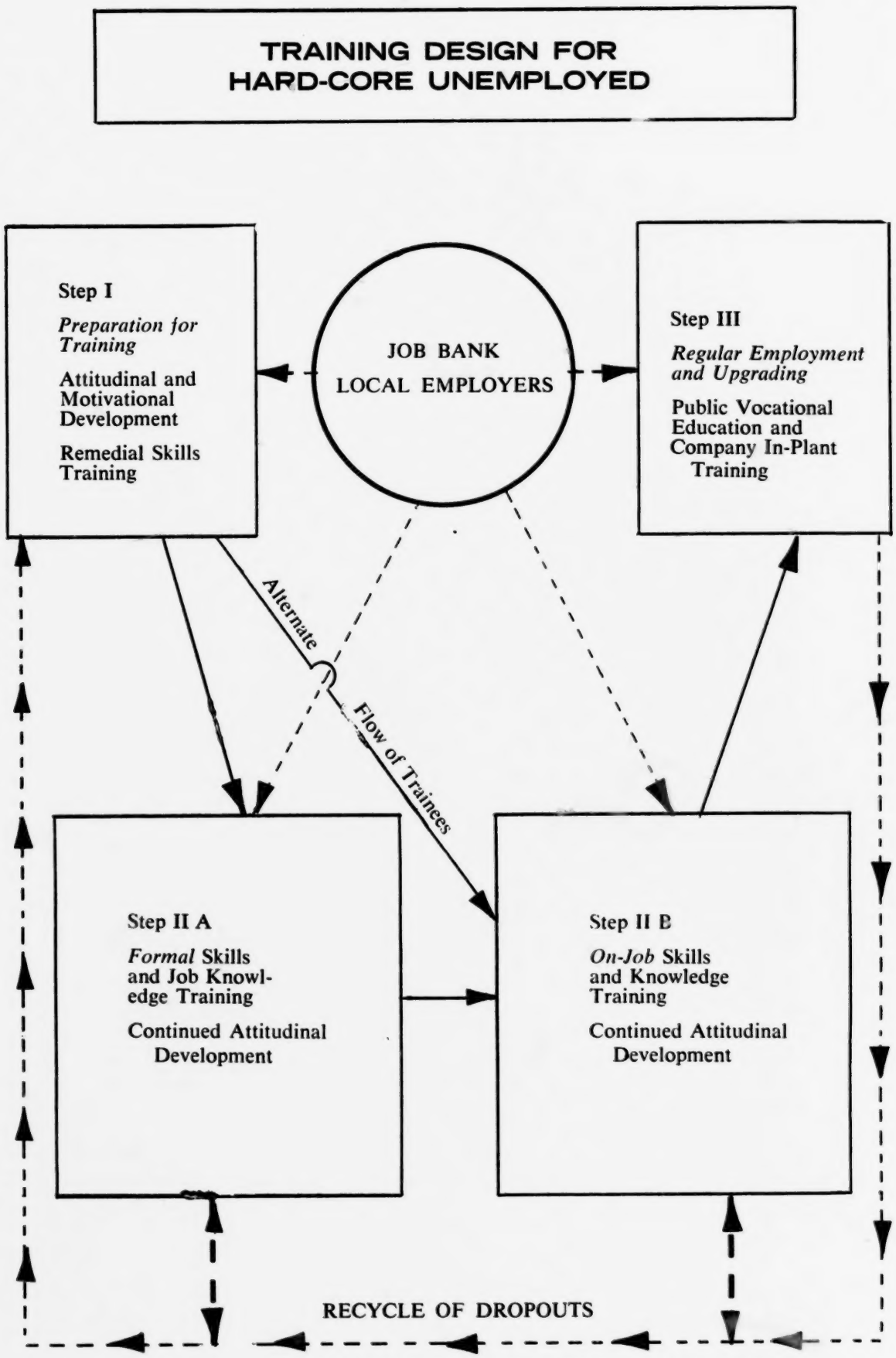
Now the educational system for years had said: Take this group of courses, and when you get through, you can go out and look for a job. When you look at this thing from an objective point of view, the job comes first, doesn't it? Why train if there are no jobs? Why train if it isn't compatible with the environment of the community?

Let me show you very quickly a system that we developed and are using in several communities in Los Angeles. (Figure 5) First, we started building a job bank. We needed to know what jobs are available to this man and train him so he can accept a job. So the job bank goes into each step. It was set up by getting the employers involved. By calling 75 members of the ASTD, in three days we found 40,000 jobs that would be available within nine months at our potential trainee's level. In building our job bank, we specified that jobs must pay at least $100 a week. That's a prestige salary to the hard-core unemployed. You're your own man with a hundred bucks a week.

The Preparation for Employment began with such things as how to get on a bus and put in your fare and get to the right destination so you can get to the job; how to purchase an alarm clock so you're not late; how to dress; how to fill out an application; how to present a positive picture of yourself. Some of the trainers are indigenous to the community. So they can say, "Look, baby, if you won't get your hair cut, split out." The person who lives next door can say, "If you want to get a job, you gotta *do* something."

The pretraining activity is all job-oriented. Remedial instruction in arithmetic and reading is almost always needed. The gas company said it had a lot of good jobs for meter readers. So we asked the gas company what a meter

Figure 5



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reader needs to know. The answer: math. Then we started questioning. What do you mean math? Well, arithmetic. What do you mean arithmetic? Well, addition and subtraction; they don't need multiplication and division. So in Preparation for Training we had attitudinal and remedial training up to the minimum job requirements. After this, our goal was to get them into a skill training program, either in vestibule (formal) training or on-the-job training in the company where they would start getting wages as trainees.

We discovered that one of the problems in most of the previous programs was when a person dropped out, there was no way to get back in. If you get a failing grade in high school, you're through. If you flunk out, you flunk out. But we couldn't have our trainees having this failure experience again. So we set up a recycling plan, which takes them back to whichever level they should go. (See Figure 5.)

We started to prepare for another vocation. If they got into a line of work that really wasn't their dish of tea, they could go back to a step in the program in which they could get preparation for another training program.

That's the system we're using now. It is paying off with people who are considered hard-core unemployed actually going into jobs.

Now, this is probably one of the toughest training jobs I ever got into. The trainees are at all different levels. You have to gather them in and supply (almost on an individual basis) what they need in order to get into jobs. We had in this program most of the elements we have talked about in training — attitudinal, remedial, vocational, and organizational.

DISCUSSION

Charles W. Matthews

It's very appropriate that we are in the National Education Association Building because we are talking about education. I harken back to Ralph Tyler, a professor of mine at the University of Chicago. He used to harp continually on content, objectives, and behavior. As Carl Kludt has said, efficiency is not the goal, but efficiency in a particular setting at a particular time. I think in corrections we certainly have the problem of defining goals discretely in terms of behavior and content.

We have the problem, I think, of that girl in the back room, in the sense that oftentimes our expectations for correctional roles and for training programs are unrelated to the actual task and to the actual location of the employee. To illustrate this, when a new manager takes over a correctional institution, one of the questions I have heard frequently is, "Does he really mean what he says he is going to try to do?" The next question is, "If he really means it, do his middle managers understand that he really means it? And if

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Mr. Matthews is director of the Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections, Southern Illinois University.

they understand that he really means it, will they do it?" Then finally, "Can the correctional officers actually carry out what he really means?"

In operating IPEP, the actual tasks were examined very carefully. They were broken down in regard to contents and behaviors. I think this problem exists in corrections; that is, we need to be able to talk about the contents and behaviors, about specific kinds of content and behavior. When we do agree on what we mean and can state this rather specifically, we then can follow through on the next step of translating these behaviors into job performance, revising and developing so that the goal and objective are related. The function relates to the goal, and the training program accomplishes what we set out to do.

We certainly have this problem of interpersonal relations and morale. Much of this, I would submit, is probably related to what Mr. Kludt has been telling us about the relationships between goals and training and on-the-job performance and product needs, what we actually say that we train for or say that we want. When people are trained to do something that doesn't actually seem to be the task — that is, when they are asked to fix up their hair real nice and then are sent to the back room — morale suffers.

We should talk about what these jobs really are like. What are the problems that come after training? What training programs are really appropriate to the task at hand? What do we really expect? We must attempt to translate all of our thoughts into rather specific sorts of goals and objectives that have the contents and behaviors spelled out to bring these down to the specific targets. We certainly need to write up our goals and to translate them into action. Oftentimes, I think, we have the problem of being fairly well oriented to the general goals but not, perhaps, being able to spell out the exact function of the correctional officer.

I think of our experience in building a training program at Southern Illinois University. Our objective was to train the training officers. We tried to define the goals very carefully. We thought that one of the basic problems for training officers was methodology. So, we built training methodologies into the training program and didn't pay as much attention to the actual content of what was to be offered in a program. We held a dry run, three dry runs, of some of our methodologies, and are midway in the training program now. This is just the point where we are trying to be most guarded in terms of examining very carefully what we are doing. At present, all of our training officers in the program are keeping a diary of their activities and immediate reactions to parts of the program. They will be asked to answer questions on other things after they leave the program and go back into the field. Certainly, the problem of instructor training is a continuous one.

One thing that Mr. Kludt pointed out has a lot of meaning to corrections: we have goals at top-management level that are too often passed on rather summarily to some other people to carry out. The goals are not really shared in any real sense. There isn't enough dialogue carried on so that the instructor really understands what it is he should be trying to get across. In Mr. Kludt's terminology, he doesn't internalize the goals, objectives, and targets.

Then, of course, the problem of evaluation is an ever-present one. I think we were all relieved to hear a rather simple approach to it: that we can use common sense and good judgment, ask appropriate questions, expect the trainees to tell us how they really feel and think, and put considerable weight on their answers. There are, of course, other kinds of evaluation that can be used, but this probably is the most direct method.

TRAINING METHODS

Lyman K. Randall

The subject of this session as given to me was "Training Methods." I think a more appropriate kind of label would be "Learning Methods." To me, training implies something done to somebody, whereas learning is something that happens to me as an individual, something that I'm involved in. Training implies a quantifiable something that happens to somebody else. At a certain point he is educated; he has it, whatever it is you want him to have. Learning implies more of a process that is never complete.

A dilemma for me in coming here was in deciding what learning method to use. If we are going to talk about 15 or 20 different kinds of learning methods, it seems a little ridiculous to me to use one technique to cover about 20 different methods. One of the things that irritates me personally is to attend a training session on listening when the trainer stands up and talks for the whole session.

Another question was: What assumptions shall I make about how much each one of you knows about training techniques or learning methods? I don't know the answer to that either. What are my boundaries? As I saw them they were: roughly 30 people, 45 minutes, 20 methods to cover. My decision was that I would do what I dislike doing and dislike having others do to me: give a lecture. I want to cover about 20 concepts in 45 minutes, and a lecture is one way to do this. We are not going to have a lot of emotional involvement in this. The process I went through was an attempt to find out what it was I was trying to accomplish or hope to accomplish today and what the terminal behavior of our objective is.

Terminal Behavior

One of the classic statements about terminal behavior is a fable which Robert Mager includes in his book originally titled *Preparing Instructional Objectives.*

Once upon a time a sea horse gathered up his seven pieces of gold and set out to seek his fortune. Before he had traveled very far, he met an eel, who said, "Pst! Hey, bud! Where ya going?" "Out to seek my fortune," said the sea horse proudly. "You're in luck," said the eel. "For four pieces of gold, I'll sell you a speedy flipper that will get you there a lot faster."

"Gee, that's swell," said the sea horse. He put on the flipper and flipped off at twice his normal speed.

Soon he came to a sponge, who said, "Pst! Hey bud! Where ya going?" "Out to seek my fortune," "Hey, you're in luck. I have here a jet-propelled scooter that I'll let you have for a small fee." So the sea horse parted with the last of his gold pieces and off he went three times as fast.

Finally he came upon a shark, who also said, "Pst! Hey, bud! Where ya going?" "Out to seek my fortune." "Hey, you're in luck. Take this short cut," said the shark, pointing to his open mouth, "and you can save a lot of time." "Gee, thanks," said the sea horse, and off he zoomed into the shark's interior.

The moral of this fable is: If you're not sure of where you're going, you're likely to end up somewhere else.

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Figure 1

BASIC LEARNING OBJECTIVES MATRIX

Areas of Behavior to be Changed	Functional Means of Changing Behavior		
	New Learning	Unfreezing and Unlearning	Integrating
Intellectual: Concepts, information	Learning new intellectual concepts, such as what training methods are available.	Unlearning intellectual concepts, such as an outdated method of computer programming.	Integrating formerly separate intellectual concepts, such as combining the laboratory and business simulation methods of training.
Attitudes, Values	Learning new attitudes or values, such as the primacy of training objectives.	Unlearning old attitudes or values, such as not sending enough managers through a training course.	Integrating two formerly unrelated attitudes or values; e.g., "I seem most alive when I am most vulnerable to being hurt."
Skills:			
Physical	Learning new physical skills, such as type-writing.	Unlearning old skills, such as practicing with a golf pro to correct your back swing.	Combining the two skills of dribbling a basketball and faking with the body.
Intellectual	Learning to manipulate quantities using the new math.	Unlearning the old math.	Learning to speak a new language.
Interpersonal	Confronting another person with whom you have had a conflict.	Unlearning former reaction to conflict, such as flight.	Conflict confrontation and listening to the other person.

I suspect that the concept of terminal behavior, which has grown out of research and experience in the programmed instruction field, is due to many things. One of them may be the knowledge explosion. Basically, the terminal behavior concept is a learning economy tool. As information and concepts have multiplied so rapidly, some help is needed in learning the mass of material that has to be learned. One way to cut through the complexities is to try to describe in behavioral terms what it is that you want people to do after they have gone through a learning experience. That sounds simple, but not after you have struggled through a session where you try to describe in behavioral terms the end result that you're shooting for as a result of a training program. It is an extremely frustrating and emotionally fatiguing experience.

Medium and Message

Marshall McLuhan has come up with a nice aphorism: The medium is the message. In terms of training technique or learning method, this aphorism says some things to me which I would like to share with you. One is that the content isn't everything. Pay attention to the form, the structure, the framework in which the content is being presented.

As an example let's take the lecture method of presentation. Probably more than any other learning method, it strongly implies a definite authority-subservience relationship. You assume someone is expert enough to come in and share with you something meaningful. Sometimes this is a valid assumption. Because the lecture method places the learner in a passive role, we get accustomed to looking on lectures as something that we have to tolerate. A lecture is basically a monologue, not a dialogue. It doesn't involve the learner. The person who gets most involved is the lecturer.

Another point about medium and message is that the content is to some extent governed by the form in which it exists. If you don't know the medium well, you don't know the message. We can relate this to what we are doing today. If I don't know the lecture method well, then perhaps I am mistaken about the message that is getting to you who are involved in the learning situation. I'll be referring back to this aphorism of the medium and the message.

With the variety of learning methods available, how do we determine which to use for a specific situation? As I've said previously, before we select any method, we must first describe what kind of behavior is to be learned. To help visualize the kinds of behavior that may result from effective learning designs, I have prepared a chart. (Figure 1)

In the left-hand column are listed three basic categories of behavioral change. At the first level is the learning of intellectual concepts. It is reasonably easy to verify whether this type of learning has occurred, since we can construct tests which will require the learner to demonstrate his understanding of the new idea.

At the second level is the learning of attitudes and values. Working to change attitudes and values is difficult because they exist largely in the shadows of human interaction. For example, after a specific learning experience has occurred, we may wish to determine whether a given individual has changed his attitude about his own feelings of hostility. It is extremely difficult to describe behaviorally how we want this person to behave after this type of learning experience. We may want him to shout at us when he gets angry. Or perhaps we want him to talk about his anger so that he can work through the hostility.

Figure 2

INDIVIDUAL LEARNING METHODS

GROUP I

METHODS	BASIC ACTIVITY	LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE
Lecture Books, Articles Slides, Filmstrips Movies, Television Phonograph Records, Tapes Programmed Instruction	Data input for the individual (Intellectual-concept)	Low involvement

GROUP II

METHODS	BASIC ACTIVITY	LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE
Case Study Incident Process In-Basket	Data-processing and decision-making by individual (Skill-intellectual)	Moderate involvement

GROUP III

METHODS	BASIC ACTIVITY	LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE
Role Playing Task Exercises Laboratory Methods • T-Group • Instrumented Group Psychodrama	Personal interaction • Skill-Interpersonal • Attitudes/Values	Moderate to high involvement

GROUP IV

METHODS	BASIC ACTIVITY	LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE
Management Games Dyadic Programming Diagnostic Data Task Group	Combinations of previous I, II, III	Moderate to high involvement

At the third level is the learning of skills. I have subdivided this grouping into: physical skills, such as typewriting; intellectual skills, such as working with new concepts and ideas required for problem-solving by new math; and interpersonal skills such as confronting another person with whom you are having conflict. This latter example probably involves some conceptual learning and attitudinal learning as well. I should point out that these categories are not mutually exclusive.

Means of Changing Behavior

Now let's go across the chart to the three major means by which individual behavior can be changed. First is new learning for the individual. Next is the unlearning of old responses or unfreezing. In many respects this is perhaps the most difficult kind of learning to bring about, because it involves re-examining and giving up that which has previously become part of an individual's behavior repertoire. The third way to modify behavior is to bring about learning which integrates two previously learned concepts or skills in some new way. This is perhaps the highest order and most creative kind of learning. In most programmed training, we expect all three kinds of learning to occur. In developing these programs, it will help us to be specific about the learning expected, so that we can more accurately choose the learning methods required to meet the objectives of the program.

Learning Methods: Data Input

Figure 2 shows about 20 learning methods combined into three family groupings determined by the common types of learning for which the methods seem most appropriate.

We are all probably familiar with the learning methods in Group I. They include lectures, books, articles, film strips, slides, movies, TV, phonograph records, tapes, and programmed instruction. I categorize these methods as a group because the basic activity involved is data input and the type of learning is largely the intellectual learning of new concepts.

All of the methods in this first group, with perhaps the exception of programmed instruction, put the learner in a fairly passive role which usually results in low involvement. For example, all of us have probably had the experience of falling asleep during a lecture or a movie or nodding off over a book. However, few have had the experience of falling asleep when engaged in conversation. This simple example illustrates what I mean by low involvement versus high involvement.

An advantage of this first group of learning methods is that they can be easily used to magnify. Through magnification, it is possible to reach more people quickly, to dramatize a point and make it come into sharp focus by cartooning or diagramming it. But magnification has some inherent dangers. If the original content is basically poor material, we may magnify it so that a large number of people are coerced into a poor learning experience. For example, my own experience tells me that most industrial training films are poorly made. Thousands of people may have to suffer from a poor learning input because the original material in the films was low-grade ore.

A second advantage coming from the use of the learning methods stressing magnification is a motivational one. A well-done learning input of this type really can catch hold of people. It can be an attention-grabber. If we can effectively dramatize something, we can make sure everyone will pay attention. However, this advantage also holds a danger. If we sit back through

life waiting for the "big curtain" to go up on experience, we will spend most of our lives very passively. It seems to me this passive posture will work against the concept of a continuously learning individual. My own experience seems to point out that it's very difficult to be passive very long and learn very much. To learn, I must get involved. At some point I must get out of the monologue stage and into the dialogue process. This last danger certainly is one of the messages contained in the medium of data-input methods listed in Group I.

Data-Processing and Decision-Making Methods

Group II of the learning methods includes the case study, the incident process, and the in-basket. They are grouped together since they all focus on data analysis and decision-making.

The case study is a detailed description of a complex problem. All of the important facts are included. The learner is asked to consider all the information, make a decision regarding the problem, and support it from the available data. The Harvard Business School is usually given credit for developing this technique into a formal method of learning.

In writing case studies, we can vary the complexities as much as we wish. We can make it a simple yes-or-no type of decision. Or we can make it a decision that involves two, three, or a hundred variables, such as: "What are the problems? List them. Knowing what you know about the case, what would you do? And why?"

The case study involves the learner to a moderate degree, since it requires some study on the part of the individual or the group. It requires the learners to wrestle with the data, to weigh the data and arrange them to make better sense. As I have already mentioned, the basic activity characterizing the case study is the processing of information already available to the learner. It teaches him nothing about the skill of gathering the information because it is already accumulated for him. The basic learning accomplished can be categorized as intellectual skill learning, i.e., teaching the learner to do something with information that is given to him.

The incident process is a variation of the case study. In this method the incident itself is described very briefly with only a capsule of the information. The learner is then required to ask a resource person or persons for additional information. Through this method we can build practice in the skills required for gathering information. The resource person in this situation is the person who has the additional facts. The learner has to work for them. They won't be given to him unless he asks for them. Therefore the learner is developing skills in both decision-making and information-gathering.

The third technique in this group is the in-basket. Basically an in-basket is a simulation of what a person often finds in his own in-basket when he walks into his office after vacation. He has a pile of letters, reports, notes, or telephone calls. The in-basket method is structured on some unit of time. "You have just come back from vacation, and you have one hour before you have to catch a plane to your main office in Pittsburgh. Your job is to work through your in-basket. Jot down either on the letters or on a separate piece of paper what you are going to do." The learner, having 60 real minutes, starts to go through all the various pieces in the in-basket. He has to develop some sort of overall framework to which he can relate each of the individual pieces. Often he will project into the in-basket his own frame of reference. If his normal behavior is to give a letter from the vice president first priority, he will probably list the vice president's letter as the most critical decision he has to make,

regardless of its contents. Usually we ask participants in our in-basket groups to list the decisions in order of importance after they have worked through the total in-basket.

One problem with using in-baskets is how to help each participant at the end of the exercise get some specific individual learning and meaning from it. We can discuss how he assigned priorities to the decisions required by the in-basket. This is meaningful to many people. We may also talk about how he tackles a complex problem. This includes looking at the process of how he went through the material and the order in which he worked on it. Sometimes we staple the in-basket materials together, and it is surprising how many individuals work through it in the same order in which it is given. We ask: "Why did you accept the given physical boundaries as a limitation, when you could have ripped the in-basket apart and spread the papers out on the floor so that you could get an overview?" Some participants get very angry at this question. Their attitude is: "If you didn't want us to work with the material in that order, why did you staple it?" I believe it helps them to take a look at their anger and their unthinking acceptance of artificial limitations.

Learning Methods Based on Interaction

Group III methods are primarily concerned with personal interaction. The areas of behavior that are being focused on here are interpersonal skills, attitudes, and values.

Let me quickly describe role-playing for you. Role-playing is designed to capture certain types of personal interactions. The interaction being focused on may be between boss and subordinate, interviewer and applicant, husband and wife, or some other pair or small group of people. A role-playing exercise normally begins with several separate pieces of printed material. A writeup is developed for each person involved in the incident under study. Another handout will describe in some detail the incident which brings all of the characters in the exercise together. Each participant is asked to assume the identity of one of the individuals in the incident, and it is then enacted.

The assignment of roles may cause difficulty if they turn out to be much different from the ones the participants are accustomed to playing. For example, if a participant is a boss and the role requires him to interact with a subordinate, it may be easier for him to identify with the boss role. If the role is that of a father interacting with a child, it may be easier for the participant to get into the father role. However, significant learning can occur from having a participant assume a role which is opposite to his normal situation.

Typically in a role-playing exercise participants receive feedback either from a preselected observer or from the remainder of the group. The participants themselves also often contribute to the feedback session. The feedback normally includes information about such questions as: What took place? What was the general nature of the interaction? Was the decision reached satisfactory to each individual? How did each participant feel about the other participants during the exercise? How might the interaction have been more effective?

In a task exercise, a joint assignment is given to a group of people. An example: "In the next hour, plan how to construct this model airplane from the pieces which have been distributed among you. You are competing against other groups. The objective is to duplicate the model in front of you in the shortest period of time without making any mistakes. You have the next hour to plan this task. You will have no more than 15 minutes to work on the

actual building of this model from the pieces you have among you. You may start actual construction before the end of 60 minutes if you so choose. No pieces may be pre-assembled before you begin actual timed construction."

Most of the people in our American Airlines training courses with whom we use task exercises initially think: "This is going to be simple." However, I am repeatedly amazed at how involved grown-ups can get in something seemingly as simple as this.

Normally, several issues arise during a team's work on a task exercise. How do team members communicate with each other about the construction pieces which are a basic part of their task? Do they assemble all of the resources necessary and available for accomplishment of the task? How do they handle the issue of leadership for the team? How well do they utilize all of their resources? How do they test their assumptions about the ground rules for the task and about their ideas for accomplishing it?

The primary focus in a task exercise is not on how fast a team can build a model given to them to duplicate. Rather, the focus is on the process which they as individuals and as a group go through to accomplish an objective. What kind of assumptions do they make? The task exercise serves as a means for generating task-oriented behavior with the objective of looking at what takes place in the exercise.

The next learning approach in Group III is the laboratory method. In most laboratory method applications, a group of 10 to 20 individuals meet without any formal written agenda. A trainer is also a part of the group. His basic instruction to the group may sound something like this: "We are primarily going to be interested in what is happening here and now, right here in this room at this moment. We are not especially interested in people outside of this group or your boss back on the job. What happens between us here in this room is what I want us to give our attention to. Another thing we are going to do is to collect data about ourselves from the other people here. That means that we are going to be giving rather candid reactions as to how we see each other. This carries with it the responsibility for each of us to accept his share of ownership of what the group does. We have complete freedom to decide what we wish to do in the group."

This initial lack of structure, with an unaccustomed amount of freedom, is a unique experience for most people. My own years of experience in academic and work settings have conditioned me to believe that time is a precious resource and I ought to utilize it. Therefore, I have a strong urge to get something going. Usually there will be several people in a group who will want to step in and get things started. Probably there will be other people who resist them and feel irritated because they try to take over and determine what the group is going to do.

Through his prior training and experience, the T-Group trainer is able to see most of the interpersonal process occurring in this kind of unstructured group situation. Sometimes the group will get hung up and be unable to progress because there is a problem with one person. Sometimes there will be a considerable build-up of feelings that can't quite bubble up to the surface to be discussed openly and candidly. In situations such as these, the trainer may sometimes intervene. He may say, "Look, I have a feeling that there are some irritations from the stunt that Frank pulled yesterday. Maybe we need to talk about it before we can move on." Again I emphasize that the focus is on the here and now, the process of interaction, and on what takes place between individuals in the ongoing experience of the laboratory group.

The instrumented laboratory is another variation of the laboratory method. Here, rather than having an expert sit with the group to help with its problems, data about here-and-now interactions between group members are collected through the use of instruments or questionnaires. I may, for example, be feeling angry toward Carol Weiss, but I can't tell her because I have difficulty telling women I am angry with them. In an instrumented laboratory, I will have an opportunity at various times during the learning experience to fill out a questionnaire about my feelings and about my perception of other people in the group. The data are collected. The group as a whole takes a look at them out in the open and decides what to do. The group may choose to ignore the data or to identify (or try to identify) what problems seem to be indicated. The instrumented laboratory approach removes the trainer from the group, thereby resolving the issue of the trainer being perceived by group members as the authority.

Some of you have probably heard of Blake's management grid theory and program. Blake uses the instrumented laboratory approach in his management grid training seminars.

In psychodrama, the last method in Group III, an individual is asked to assume the role of a person with whom he is having some kind of difficulty. For example, if Marshall Fels and I work together and he is telling me about a problem he is having with one of the men in the shop, I might try to take his role and he might take the role of the other man. Using this approach, we would try to work through the situation to see what Marshall's reactions might be when he is in the other person's shoes. Or I might assume the role of the man with whom he is having the problem and ask him to go through it again the way it actually happened or the way he imagines it is going to happen when they have the encounter. In some respects, psychodrama is similar to role-playing except that it is somewhat more reality-based and therefore more involving.

Learning Methods in Combination

Each of the learning methods in Group IV basically combines the major features and functions of several methods previously described: data input, data-processing and decision-making, and personal interaction.

The management game is a method being used more and more widely today in American business. At American Airlines, we call our management game Desertopolis. As in any business game, our Desertopolis game involves giving a problem to a team of men with a structured role for each of them which contains specific information and tasks to be accomplished. The initial task of Desertopolis is to organize and launch an airplane operation where none has existed before. There are seven roles to be played: city manager, sales manager, cargo manager, maintenance manager, market research and advertising manager, controller and schedule manager. This roughly duplicates our American Airlines form of local organization. Each team's task is to make seven kinds of decisions which represent a distillation of the reality they normally work in. On their real jobs, these same men would have to make hundreds of decisions. However, we are taking out of reality and building into this game key decisions to be made by a group. For example, each team must decide how much advertising it is going to buy, how many mechanics it is going to hire, how many spare parts it will have to stock for its aircraft, how many salesmen it will hire, where it will place them in the market, what market or markets it will specialize in, etc.

Desertopolis is played on a quarter basis. Every three months — which can vary in real time from 15 minutes to 30 minutes — each team is required to fill out a set of decision forms. These forms are reviewed and scored by the trainers. The results from each team's decisions are returned to the teams. From them they learn how many sales they made and how many pounds of cargo they sold. These sales can then be converted into dollars which are, in turn, used to buy more advertising, to hire more salesmen, to stock more spare parts, etc. The involvement in this type of exercise is extremely high.

What is learned from it? Primarily, participants learn two things. For many of our managers, the game provides a means for them to integrate for the first time the multiple basic functions of an airline. When a spare part is not available or a mechanic is not on hand to fix an aircraft, the operation stops. This is the way it happens in real life. Usually the maintenance man will understand it, but he really begins to feel what his function does to other functions as they interrelate during the game across the organizational structure. In a game such as this, where everything is condensed in terms of simplicity and time, it is easier to see how the various functions interrelate with each other and how a problem in one area can cause problems in all others.

The second thing a participant learns is the way in which his own analytic, decision-making, and interpersonal skills affect his teammates in the results the team achieves. Periodically we stop the action and put the game aside for awhile to discuss why each team is getting certain results. Sometimes it turns out that one individual is having a real problem in being listened to by another man. During the team feedback discussion, he may say: "If you'd listened to me, we wouldn't have got into that fix. But you never listen. You just stand up and talk all the time!" This is valuable feedback to get. It is highly probable that each participant's behavior in his team is similar to his behavior on the job.

The dyadic programming approach to learning is an interesting experimental attempt to program meaningful interpersonal interaction. One example is the management improvement program developed by the Human Development Institute in Atlanta, Georgia. The program requires two people to sit down and read the programmed content aloud to each other. Much of the program contains information about how people often deal with each other. There are also questions about this information, and the two people are asked to fill in blanks just as in a traditional form of programmed instruction. However, at other points in the dyadic program, they are asked to describe what they are feeling at that moment. Or they may be asked to engage in a role-playing episode with the learning partner and then describe how they felt about the interaction. These discussions are then related back to the main content of the program.

Human Development Institute has developed another dyadic program on improving marital relationships. A husband and wife sit down and work through the program, talking about key concepts of a marriage relationship and problems that frequently arise between husband and wife. They stop from time to time to discuss their feelings in the here and now. Role-playing situations are enacted during the program, problems with the kids and how they are handled. The participants see each other in certain family situations. Thus they work jointly toward a more open family relationship without the assistance of a trained third party.

The diagnostic data task exercise is a learning method aimed at bringing about vital behavior change on the job. It enables people to take a look at

what's happening right now as they work together. As an example, Union Carbide has used a one-page questionnaire to generate data in group meetings about the quality of interactions occurring at that moment in time. Such areas as trust, open communication, and quality of member participation in the meeting are rated by each individual on a nine-point scale. The data are then displayed for everyone to see. Because the data came directly from the group that they are working in, it is difficult if not impossible for the individuals to disown them by saying, "Oh, that's someone else's problem." If there is an area where the average rating of a group is a three, then the group knows that on that point it has some real problems to resolve. Perhaps there is a distorting of communication in the group. They may not be sharing information fully because they really don't trust everyone. Obviously, unless the group faces up to such problems, its effectiveness will be seriously impaired. By using diagnostic data devices, individuals and work teams can find out what interpersonal problems are influencing the effectiveness of the job.

Summary

In summary, there are numerous methods which we can use to help other people learn about almost anything. Each method is particularly appropriate for certain kinds of learning. Our major job in constructing programs that will help others to learn is to select the right combination of methods for the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be learned. This task is analogous to playing a piano. There are 88 keys which can be played in an almost infinite variety of combinations. But unless we know in advance what the overall composition should sound like, our playing will be full of discords and void of any real meaning.

DISCUSSION

Marshall Fels

Mr. Randall covered a great range of training methodology. Each training method he mentioned has been "successfully" employed in both the private and public sectors. Thus I first make the point that the methodology used at American Airlines can be employed at Jones State Prison.

But be sure you put training methodology into perspective. Be sure that you understand that the methods — T-Group training, lecture, in-basket, on-the-job training — are *tools* much like the pipe wrench the plumber uses; more sophisticated, to be sure, but still a tool for getting the job done.

And this brings me to another point. Don't pick the method until you decide what is the job to be done. Each training tool is usually best for a particular job. For instance, if my institution was having a problem of contraband in cells, I might well decide to do some refresher training. Though you might disagree, the method which might work best would be to demonstrate cell shakedown, have the trainee practice under observation, give him some feedback, and then have some additional practice.

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On the other hand if my sergeants and lieutenants were not communicating, or at least seemed not to be, then the training tool might best be of the laboratory training type, understanding that this tool has not necessarily been proven infallible. Whatever the case, the tool is chosen after the *need* is established and the *objectives* for the training set.

Now, note that the word "objective" has crept back in after its introduction by Mr. Kludt this morning. When you start out to train, to meet a specific need or group of needs, you must set objectives so that, when the training is ended (if training ever ends), management knows whether its investment has paid off and the trainer knows whether his choice of a particular training tool was correct. I feel that Mr. Randall's management probably is much more demanding in this area than are most managements of correctional institutions or public administrators in general.

And so I am led to my last major point. Don't let Mr. Randall's competence as a training manager and his ability to explain training methods lead you astray. He believes, I'm sure, as I do, that training must more and more become an integral part of the organization. At present, training is mostly an appendage to the organization. The training lieutenant all too often runs a sort of school in a group of rooms set aside in the administrative wing of the institution, or the parole training office does the same in another setting. But what relationship does that training have to an evolving organization form, to the influence of a supervisor on his subordinate, to problem-solving, to revision of rules and regulations, and so on?

How do an organization and its people grow and mature? Is growth better stimulated by a perceptive person looking at the "process" of the executive staff meeting; by a course in supervision for all correctional lieutenants or parole supervisors; by the "growth milieu" a sergeant creates for his officers; or by a training course to teach the new regulations?

Just one more comment. Mr. Randall covered many training tools, but not all. There are many innovative adaptations being used in training, and many more tools are soon to be discovered. Don't appoint a tired old correctional worker to handle training to get him out of the "more important" work. Appoint an interested, vigorous correctional worker or a professional trainer.

DISCUSSION FROM THE FLOOR

Motivation for training appears to be a serious problem. How can we motivate people so that the training effort is not nullified? One of the ways is through the use of training techniques that involve them in the training. Present pessimism about training is based on the non-involved methods such as lectures and films.

Involving the trainees results in a focusing of the training on real problems that have application to the job. Any irrelevance of the training material to the job becomes most apparent in a role-playing situation. It is in the area of relevance that one of the weaknesses of training lies.

Training of correctional officers in group counseling is a familiar fad these days. Too often, the organizational change that must precede this training does not take place. Although it can be rationalized that the training will sensitize the trainees, the lack of structure within which this new training can be used negates the training effort.

Too often trainees are aware that change will not take place to accommodate the new training. This is especially true when the trainees, having evalu-

ated their superiors, realize that new behaviors will not be accepted and new methods of doing the job will not be tolerated. It is difficult for the trainer to be effective in the face of opposition to new ideas revealed by evaluation of a superior's response.

To what extent must training reach the superior? How high up the administrative hierarchy must training begin in order to prepare the groundwork for effective training in the lower ranks? Obviously, we cannot expect to take busy administrators away from their work in order to train them. Yet it is necessary to involve them in training somehow. We make a mistake, however, in thinking that the top administrator should actually be put through a training program. By the time a person becomes a top administrator, it is too late to give him training. The only realistic concern here should be to get a training commitment from him. We want him to support the training program and back it when the going gets rough.

Training should reach up into the middle-management level. These are the people who are involved in the daily operation and who can exert the most influence. An example was given of a training program in letter-writing given by the federal General Services Administration for people whose main function was drafting letters. A new style of drafting letters was taught to trainees. When they returned to their jobs, the persons who were to sign the letters refused to sign them. This points up the problem mentioned earlier, the need to change the structure of the work if the training is to be effective. In this case, a change in procedure should have taken place along with the training. It may not have been necessary to put the letter-signers through a letter-drafting training program, since this would not be relevant to their work. However, some effort should have been made to acquaint them with the rationale behind the training. Undoubtedly some few would have resisted the new method in any case, but the number would have been reduced by such an approach.

There is a need for a coordinated training effort so that it cuts through an organization. For example, training of persons on a lower level can create problems if their superiors are not aware of the purpose and the results of the training. Often the trainee learns new behavior and new terminology and through their use creates anxiety in his superior. The training has created a gap in this instance. The superior does not understand his subordinate, nor is he involved in the restructuring of the job situation. It is important therefore not only to be aware of the immediate training goals but also to coordinate the training so the ramifications for all other organizational levels are understood. In short, don't concentrate on training the correctional officer and ignore the lieutenant or the associate warden.

We are sometimes overwhelmed by the belief that there is a lack of motivation among personnel. This assumption is not necessarily valid. We tend to view the average person as being unmotivated because he has civil service protection or because he belongs to a union. Beginning with this assumption, we attempt to motivate through training. In this instance, training becomes a substitute for confrontation. If it is felt that work performance is below the acceptable level or if there is absenteeism, the underlying problems must be addressed. To provide a training program to teach job skills that the person already has or to discuss the honest use of sick leave only reinforces the problem. It tells the employee that he is viewed as inferior. It does not go beyond the performance to the reasons behind the performance. It uses training as a substitute for supervisory skills.

Training in itself is not a motivator. We cannot use it to raise morale any more than we can use pay raises for this purpose. Studies have shown that a pay raise acts as a job satisfier for only a short period of time. In fact, after a pay raise a person will feel that he is worth as much as he is being paid. The significant motivators include: increased responsibility on the job; and recognition and reward for performance. Training can prepare people to assume greater responsibility; recognition and reward are administrative matters. Moreover, increased responsibility must result from a restructuring of the context of the job. We cannot train people to assume responsibility and then not give them anything responsible to do. Training is not a substitute for good supervision or good management.

COLORADO TRAINING PROGRAMS

Howard Higman

I am going to describe to you our experiences in Colorado in training employment counselors and VISTA volunteers. By way of background, I have to say that I am a professional sociologist but an amateur trainer. We got into training accidentally, involuntarily, and the training we have got involved with has been very successful. We have evidence for success, and now as intellectuals we are embarrassed to try to figure out what makes it successful. One of the reasons we don't know what makes it successful is that we have been unwilling to run an unsuccessful program as a control group.

Basic Elements in the Programs

Our first program started accidentally in 1964 when the Labor Department decided to change its method of training employment counselors. The Employment Service is one of the most established old-line bureaucracies in the United States. It has different names in different states, but it's all under the Bureau of Employment Service in the Labor Department. That bureau wanted to go into a new field. Up to now they had had what they called high school counselors, who called in students and gave them batteries of tests. They would say to one of them, "Terry Thompson, you qualify for an opening we have over at Lacey Motors, putting on fenders. Go over and see Mr. Thorndike." When Terry comes back with a job, the high school counselor makes a mark on the paper which is called a placement. You add all these marks up, and they are called a budget. So the more marks the better. Of course, Terry Thompson would probably have got this job anyway.

The new idea was to see if some of these high school counselors could be retreaded into counselors for the Youth Opportunity Centers, those early outposts in the war on poverty. So Washington drew up "guidelines" for training them. The guidelines called for taking a large number of counselors for three weeks on a university campus — green grass, handsome buildings, the works — and running them through courses on community relations, community organization, race relations, counseling, and so on. Then these counselors would go back with certificates to the effect that they had been through a training program, and this would distinguish them from other counselors.

The guidelines were shown to us in Denver, and we were asked to propose a training program along these lines. We were really not willing to do this. So we drafted an alternative proposal and took it back to Denver. It was different from what the guidelines suggested, in several ways. Probably the most important were these:

1. The training program would not take place on a campus but in an old warehouse down on skid row in the worst section of the city of Denver.

2. We would go out and employ high school drop-outs, ADC mothers, and unemployed men, people you find in bars where the unemployed congregate. We would hire these people, and they would be part of our faculty. We would call them basic instructors. We would pay them $10 a day to give us lectures and teach us what it is like to be poor and out of a job.

The Denver regional representative of the federal bureau objected to Difference No. 1 — having the program in a slum district. Theatrical, he

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called it. I told him with some heat that there were two good reasons for having it there. First, from the theory of Lewin, we know that the structure of the field has an enormous effect on the rate of learning. To live in an area and see poor people, people waiting in line for 3 hours' work, people lying drunk on the sidewalk, and so on, would affect the way in which the training would be received.

More important than that, we would never be able to bring our basic instructors into a federal building — through the bronze doors, into an elevator, and along marble halls to an auditorium — without their freezing on us and being completely unable to talk. Any time a person like a basic instructor has been led through government buildings it's been the police who did the leading, and it has always been bad news. If we want to hear their story from these people, we have to go where they are, not drag them where we are.

Well, the proposal went to Washington. A high official in the Labor Department is reported to have said: "We have had 185 program proposals. This is the only one with an untested idea, so we don't have any evidence that it won't work. Therefore, let's fund it."

So that was the beginning. We had about 40 high school counselors from five states — New Mexico, Colorado, Utah, Wyoming, and Montana. The program lasted three weeks.

Structure of the Program

I will tell you a little about how the training was structured.[1] I should say first of all that the trainees lived in an old hotel near the Union Station in Denver, where Horace Tabor lived with Baby Doe in the rousing days of the silver kings in Colorado. The old building, now in the slum area, is named the Oxford Hotel. So we called our program the Oxford Training University.

We have a theory on the difference between training and education. An education is what we work at on a college campus. It is designed to produce a creative, independent mind. Philosophy dreams up things that are and things that aren't. It is deductive, impersonal, and permissive, and it moves in various ways its wonders to achieve. This is the whole world of education on the campus.

Now training, on the other hand, we think of as the quickest possible installation into a human being of a limited amount of orientation or skill (orientation is more important than skill) for a specific goal which we have before we start and which he will have when we are through.

The first principle of our program was that trainees should be exhausted at all times and thus should have no time for their minds to wander. So a formal schedule was set up from 8:00 a.m. till noon. Lunch was a work session, a work lunch called feedback. The afternoon session was from 2:00 to 5:00 with dinner about 5:30 or 6:00 till 7:30. Then there was another session till 9:00. This went on seven days a week except that Sundays were free until noon. This left no time for anybody to do anything but get exhausted.

But even with this schedule, we discovered that the students augmented it further. When we released them at about 10:30 p.m., they would assemble in small groups and go on talking about their exhaustion until about 2:00 or 3:00 a.m. It seems that you can get so tired that you can't go to sleep, and that's what they did.

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[1] For detailed description and evaluation of the program, see Howard Higman, Robert Hunter, and William T. Adams, *The Colorado Story, An Evaluation Report on the Employment Security Institute*, University of Colorado, Institute of Behavioral Science, Bureau of Sociological Research (Boulder, Colo.: The Institute, 1964).

Also we had the idea of ambiguity. Ambiguity meant that they never could know what was going to happen next. It was exceedingly unclear to them what the program was about, and there was great anxiety every day. There would be a lecture called "Mirrors in Back Rooms," business administration courses called "Bureaucratic Static," and so forth. Then we would suddenly make complete shifts in the program. The only thing they knew was what time they should show up and how they should be dressed. But not what was going to happen. So they were right on the edge of their seats throughout the whole thing with sheer anxiety.

Field Placements

The first thing we did was to see that everyone had a field placement as soon as he got there. The field placement was one of the most effective parts of the program. For one placement, trainees rode with a police officer in a squad car from seven in the evening until three in the morning. The cars were in District One, which includes skid row, answering call after call — parties in apartment houses, husband-wife disputes, brawls in bars. As students observed, they became very ambiguous about who was guilty and who wasn't. They saw officers being rather mean to the Spanish-American youths and youths being very menacing to the officers. They saw a mutual exchange of mistrust and hostility. I wouldn't say that they identified with the officers, but they didn't identify with the boys either. They saw the problems in terms of the system, with a relationship between the boy and the officer in the system. It was all fairly ambiguous, and they had a shocking experience on these trips.

One day they were told to come dressed in shabby, but not dirty clothes — a clean old sweatshirt, for example. Then they were given half an hour to concoct a mythical work history. They were to be out of work and, for a valid reason, not be able to furnish a reference. They were then to think up a strategy for getting a job. They wrote all this out. We collected the papers and sent them on their way to get a job. They were told that they could change their strategy, if necessary, when they got out in the field. And they could make one telephone call to us. Let me tell you about the experiences of a couple of men.

Fleming looked in the paper and found an ad for a truck driver. When he applied for the job, the clerk asked what type of work he had been doing. "I was just released from the state pen," said Fleming. "You mean you're on parole?" "No, I served my time, and it's all over now." "Have you driven a truck before?" "Yes, I've driven a laundry truck." "Well, have you driven a bakery truck?" "No, I haven't driven a bakery truck." "Well, that's what we're looking for."

Watson went to a place run by his own agency, the Employment Service. It is what we called the slave market, a store front on a slum corner where men line up early for unskilled work — 3-hour jobs, 6-hour jobs. Watson got in line. The Employment Service man asked him what his last job was. "I haven't been working. I've been in the state mental hospital." "Are you nuts or something?" "No, I'm all right now." "Just a minute. Would you step aside, please?" The next applicant was called up. Watson said he began to feel like a telephone pole because people were going around him. He would go forward in line as far as the desk, and each time he would be asked to step aside. Finally — "That's all for today, boys." "What about me?" Watson asked. "Oh, I forgot you. Come back tomorrow."

The most dramatic experience was that of an older woman. When she entered the program, she had decided that she didn't need to take the battery of

tests as the others did, but she was soon convinced that she would have to if she wanted to stay. On this assignment she couldn't really dress like a poor person out of a job. She was pretty clever in designing a non-work history. She had never worked because she had been married and had enough money. Her husband had died, and she had lost some money on the market. Her children were gone, and she needed to work now. She had really done a lot of things, but all on a volunteer unpaid basis. She had been a Gray Lady, nurse's aid, and all kinds of things like that. She applied for a job for which she was totally qualified: supervising a group of girls in a department store. When she arrived, she didn't have a reference, and the little whipper-snapper behind the counter said," Well, I am sorry, but we are not interviewing anyone without a reference." She begged for an employment form anyway. She said that she could make the case with all those volunteer jobs. But she didn't get her form.

She came back shaken up because she discovered that what is awfully hard for any of us middle-class persons to discover: that is, we are not individuals but groups of individuals. When she was shorn of all the people she could refer to, she was nobody. Up to that moment, she had thought of herself as someone of importance, and this was a profound learning experience for her.

Another field assignment was for the students to get up at four in the morning and go down to the slave market to watch people get jobs and not get jobs. They observed how those who did get jobs were often hustled into trucks like cattle and cursed if they didn't move fast enough.

For another field experience, we took away the students' wallets and purses. Then we doled out to each of them three quarters — two for carfare and one for lunch. Each one was assigned to a basic instructor, who was told to take the student along and just re-do what the instructor had done the day before. Nothing exhausted the students so much. They spent the whole day just killing time. It's a fantastically hard job to make a day go by when you don't have the knowledge, or the interest, or the will to go to the art museum or visit the state capitol or watch the Denver Post get printed. There are all kinds of things you can do for free, and some are exciting. But the basic instructors don't know about these things. Theirs is a tiny little world in which they try to kill the day with drinking beer, listening to records, walking, ganging up, driving round and round.

VISTA Training Program

After we had completed the counselor training program, we were asked to train VISTA volunteers who would work with poor people in farms and villages.[2] As with the employment counselor program, the VISTA volunteers were trained among the poor. We set up the program in the San Luis Valley in the southwestern part of the state, where potatoes, truck crops, and hay are grown and harvested by migrant labor and by people from the local Spanish-American villages which antedate most other settlements in Colorado. The program was headquartered in a small hotel in Monte Vista, the seat of a county which is prosperous farming country but has pockets of Spanish-American poverty. Nearby are several counties which are almost totally poverty-stricken.

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[2] See Howard Higman, Robert Hunter, and William T. Adams, *The Monte Vista Story, An Evaluation Report on a Training Program for Volunteers in Service to America*, University of Colorado, Institute of Behavioral Science (Boulder, Colo.: The Institute, 1965).

One of their first field experiences was to take a sleeping bag and move into the home of a poverty-stricken Spanish-American family for three days and nights. We paid the hosts $5 a day for the room and board. The volunteers were given a secret task to perform — to make a health survey of the family. They were to weigh everyone in the family without their knowing it. This they did by balancing with them on a teeter-totter. They were to take everyone's pulse rate. They were to make a caloric inventory of the food intake. According to the Public Health Service, the result was probably the most accurate food survey ever done there. Students were trained to observe what was being served probably because they were there, as opposed to what was the normal diet. A sample clue was a small child's question about a glass of milk: *"Mamá, qué es esto?"* (Mommy, what's that?).

The volunteers also spent three days with a social worker from the welfare department. They saw the worker punish the client and the client punish the worker in turn.

This leads me to an experience called Operation Elbow Room. The volunteers built a house, but first they had to go to the mountains and chop down trees and skin them. They dug holes and mixed cement. They built the house and plastered it.

We did this for several reasons. One was to show how a house could be built with very little money using native materials. And we wanted to involve the Spanish-American community with us. We let the word get round that we were going to build a house for exercise and build it in the Spanish barrio (ghetto), a section of the town without sewers or running water, without hard-surfaced streets or fire protection. The people there felt it was a shame that the house shouldn't be used. We said we couldn't do that because there would be jealousy. So they had a town meeting and picked someone for whom the house should be built. This was a 40-year-old man who had heart trouble and so couldn't have worked if any work were available.

We did, as a matter of fact, use the house-building as a physical education program. We also used it to demonstrate the character of the volunteers to the local townspeople, who had anticipated beatniks at best and Communists at worst. The idea that the volunteers would actually build something was pretty impressive to the local Methodists and Presbyterians.

This brings me back to the welfare agency. The state welfare director heard about Operation Elbow Room and came down to see it. When we took him over to the spot, there were about a hundred people standing around watching the house go up. Someone said something, and there was a sound like a flock of birds getting under way. The director looked up and asked where all the people had gone. "Oh, they overheard," someone replied. "Overheard what?" "That you were the boss of the welfare department." When the director went back to Denver, he called his staff together and described what went on in terms of "that's what they think of you."

The trainees spent three days in recreation, going out to create basketball courts and baseball diamonds. They taught probability theory with dice. They worked with children of all ages, from four to eighteen. They didn't get the Spanish kids to play baseball honestly. But they did get them to play, which is something of an accomplishment because the rural Spanish-American culture just does not have organized sports and so there's little for the kids to do which doesn't get them into trouble. They didn't play honestly, as I said. The big boys wouldn't let the younger ones come to bat, or they rigged it so they always won. The course in sportsmanship comes next year.

The trainees attended trials in a court room or in the kitchen of a county judge, where judicial procedure had apparently never been heard of. They saw a man committed to a mental hospital without being allowed to testify in his own behalf, the judge and his attorney agreeing that he was better off not to testify although he asked to do so.

They saw three Spanish boys fighting with Anglo boys on a street corner. When a policeman broke it up, he sent the Anglo boys home with their fathers, but he took the Spanish boys in the paddy wagon to jail. When the trainees asked why the Spanish boys' father hadn't been called, the policeman said, "Oh, he's probably drunk. And besides, they don't have telephones." This kind of Spanish kid can easily go from jail to the state reform school. They are doing so at a fantastic rate, even though they may be only 10 years old.

Process of Communication

Each trainee had to keep a daily log of his experiences. They were instructed to listen all the time for words, to listen and record sentences every day. When they heard references to God, to authority, to power, to play, to fun, to the future, etc., these were to be recorded in terms of times and places and quantities. The trainees both in Denver and in Monte Vista acquired a whole new vocabulary that reflected the culture of the urban and the rural poor.

In Denver we finally told the trainees to dress in their best one night. We gave each a little address book without anything in it and sent them off to posh places like the Brown Palace Hotel and the Denver Hilton, with instructions to sit in bars and not drink. They would give the excuse that they were waiting for someone. They would be looking in their address books from time to time. Eventually everybody felt sorry for the poor stood-up guy or gal and got very friendly. Now what the trainees were doing with those address books was to jot down words and sentences, exactly as they had been doing with the basic instructors and other poor people. The shock came when they compared the two vocabularies.

In our daily sessions the basic instructors would sit by the tape recorder in front of the trainees and start talking. Bit by bit, the trainees would move in closer and closer to listen. They weren't lost; they weren't a bit lost, since they had learned the vocabulary. The thing about the story is that invariably just as the basic instructor got to the point where you thought, "This is as much as a human being can take," you got another chapter and it was worse. This went on and on.

In this situation, we observed trainees move all the way from an identification with their own bureaucracy, their own middle class, to identification with the client. That's too much. At the end of this sort of thing, they were ready to resign, to abolish the Labor Department, or whatever it was that had to be abolished. We had the task then of moving them back halfway. So we had a week of un-brainwashing, where they came back out of this coma into a halfway position.

I can hardly overstate what those basic instructors accomplished in changing the trainees. Several trainees, I knew, had been able to resist successfully all the propaganda from Washington about their obligations under the Civil Rights Act. I have seen them sit and resist every single speaker for hours on end for two solid days. Then on the third morning, they listened to the experiences of two Negroes and a couple of Spanish boys. By noon they were absolutely and totally affected by the experience. In the afternoon, when they had a

choice of different questions for discussion in the small groups, seven of the eight independently chose as the main problem the question of how to rid their own department offices of de facto discrimination. Yet for two solid days they had been united in their resistance to this concept. In this training we were consciously seeking to change the labor counselors and have them go back and change the organization and their supervisors.

Trainers and Trainees

The trainee needs to feel that the training staff know what they are doing, that they are more than custodians. I get the feeling that some trainers are not seen; they start programs and, the minute the speaker begins, they duck out to make a very important telephone call. The content of the course is not important enough for the staff to hear it.

Our training staff, however, are forced to sit and take notes, even though they are hearing the lecture for the eighth time in a row, because they are still examples to the trainees. If the lecture isn't important enough for the training staff, then it isn't important enough for the trainees. I've seen situations where the training staff are wandering around during the training, changing things or whispering in the doorway. So you have two things going: the presentation and a sort of visible administration. This is a very poor sort of situation.

I think the idea of continuous pressure is an important part of effective training. It is not a bit important that the trainee resents it. He should be uncomfortable. In fact, he should learn to feel that it is unpleasant. And then I feel he needs to be celebrated, enormously, at the very end. At the end of our training programs we celebrate in terms of food, beverages, certificates and speeches, and so the trainee has the sense of being blessed.

Another point is that the training program has to train the training staff at the same time it is training the trainees. For that reason, we have a staff meeting every day at five o'clock . . . seven days a week. The whole previous 24 hours is reviewed in detail.

Coping with the Establishment

The end result of the training program should be seen as learning a way of coping with the establishment. In other words, we invite to lecture to us the establishment that we are involved with. Somehow you can't come in and lecture in a training program and maintain your hatred, because you are such an egoist that, if anyone would clap for you, you have got something going. In the VISTA program we bring in the most militant employers of farm migrants for an evening, to tell us how horrible migrants are. The VISTA volunteers are going out to try to undermine these employer farmers' resistance to change. They sit and drink beer with them until two in the morning, fighting and discussing; eventually a little bond of friendship is built up. The hostile newspaper editor is invited to come in and advise them on how to cop the newspaper editor — not him, of course, but the editor in the town you are going to go to — to help you with your program. Thus training involves the community, the establishment, the superiors, as well as the trainee.

Furthermore, we find that it is better in training to have a newspaper man talking about newspapers than a professor of journalism — at least in the question-and-answer period — because he is real. It's better to have a juvenile judge come in and talk about the role of the judge and the role of the delin-

quent with the judge, than to have the professor of criminology. The idea of what we call the clinical and empirical training approach is to use real persons.

DISCUSSION

Kenneth Polk

Throughout today we have been listening to comments on in-service training of various kinds. One thing which is obvious is that the name of the game of in-service training has changed. Clearly, what is being discussed is much more sophisticated and is accomplishing a lot more than used to be included in correctional in-service training.

The second point emerging from our discussion is methods — the distinction that is being made between training and education. The three prior speakers have specifically rejected the university model of education. This should tell us professors that there is something wrong when so much of training and so much of the ultimate learning business has been turned over to other kinds of people using elaborate, efficient, and sophisticated techniques. This is of tremendous significance.

Mr. Higman's training model develops the notion that training first should somehow take place in the field; that it should take place somehow where the action is. Those of us who have had contact with the Colorado program and the kinds of people who have been produced recognize the significance of this program. Training people in a setting similar to the actual work situation gives people preparation and insight which appear to go far beyond those produced by traditional training models.

There is much more to the Colorado programs than this "setting" assumption. It is these other assumptions that appear to me to be more problematic. For example, the staff is cast in extremely authoritarian roles. While such an authoritarian organization may yield a number of positive benefits, it is an open question as to whether such training best prepares people for the outside world which lacks such tight structuring.

In addition, the heavy scheduling of trainees' time literally envelops the trainer in the training experience. Again, this strikes me as being a separate component of the training theory contained in Mr. Higman's comments. Such a process on its surface appears pedagogically sound, but it is not without its price. One result is stress among trainees. Before wholesale application of this method occurs, some thought should be given as to whether the program is ready to take on the consequence of a high level of trainee stress and anxiety.

There is an additional notion expressed here as to who does the training job best. It is appropriate to argue that judges can do some training better than professors of criminology and that a police captain, let's say, can do a better job of promoting some material than a specialist in police administration. What needs to be said is that such statements refer to a certain kind of knowl-

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edge. Specifically, this is a low order of knowledge, in the sense of level of abstraction. Such a program may not prepare the trainees to deal with phenomena at an abstract level. At least some discussion of these concepts at a theoretical level would be essential in most kinds of correctional training programs.

A final problem about this and the other training programs we have reviewed is that they are, in essence, ideologically empty. That is to say, these training methods, including the one just discussed, do not have an explicit commitment to a set of goals. What the trainer supplies is a bag of training tricks. If he is competent, he has a set of training techniques appropriate for the given situation.

This leaves entirely open the questions of: What is the training all about? What are you training for? Where are you trying to go? In other words, the discussion ordinarily will be made external to the actual training method. But the point is, of course, that any time you engage in training, you are making some kind of ideological commitment. Sensitivity training, for example, assumes that organization problems of various kinds reside in the nature of interpersonal relations rather than in any other set of conditions considered as highly relevant within other theoretical perspectives.

The VISTA training in Colorado also makes what I consider to be problematic ideological assumptions. For preparing volunteers to engage aggressively the established community power system, the training seems vulnerable to the following questions: Are trainees given adequate theoretical descriptions of the nature of the power systems? Are the volunteers given adequate resources to carry out their struggle successfully? When the volunteers leave, will the indigenous poor be more, rather than less, vulnerable? Finally, will such programs affect the basic economic and occupational factors which appear central to the problem of poverty?

The Colorado programs' significance is not at all diminished by questions such as these. The kind of programs being undertaken by Mr. Higman and his associates are most significant for correctional training and for higher education. To put it another way, both college professors and correctional administrators have much to learn from Howard Higman.

TRAINING ORGANIZATION MATRIX

	In-House ➤ — — — — → Outside					
	a. Line Supervisor	b. Personnel or Training Officer	c. Manager (Warden or Administrator)	d. State Civil Service or Govt. Agency	e. Universities, Associations	f. Commercial Enterprises
1. Identfying needs—diagnosis (method, frequency)						
2. Selecting program design—prescription						
3. Developing curriculum content						
4. Developing or selecting materials, aids						
5. Selecting the teacher or leader	a					
	b					
	c					
	d					
	e					
	f					
6. Selecting the site a. Location b. Kind c. Sponsorship						
7. Deciding relationship to other training or other trainees						
8. Selecting and executing method of evaluation						
9. Establishing system of reinforcement and rewards						

ORGANIZATIONAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR TRAINING

David C. Jelinek

In this presentation on the organizational arrangements of employee training, I will attempt to spread before us several dimensions, variables, or options from which a particular training program can be built. I think it unnecessary to point out to this group that choices do exist; but it may be helpful to realize how manifold and complex the choices of organizational structure are.

Elements of a Training Program

To begin with, I should like to identify nine constituent functions or elements of a training program, as shown in the matrix.

1. *Identification of needs, the diagnosis.* This is the determination that a program or operational deficiency stems, at least in part, from a staff deficiency — whether it is a deficiency of knowledge or skill, understanding or attitude — and the identification of the employees to be trained.

2. *Selection of a program design.* This is the basic decision to select a traditional classroom method, a seminar, on-the-job coaching, self-study, lab situation, or some other design and also the selection of schedule — short-term, long-term, full-time, or part-time.

3. *Development of curriculum content.* Just what is it that you are going to impart? How does it meet a detailed specification of the deficiency to be corrected?

4. *Selection of materials.* For example, aids, texts, case studies, exercises, films, tests, and questionnaires.

5. *Selection of the teacher, the leader, or the coach in the conduct of the program.* What is his relationship to the trainee? What does he know? What teaching skills must he bring to the task. What other identity has he, particularly if he is an outsider? Will he play a fixed role, or will he be a circuit rider, dropping in from time to time?

6. *Site selection.* You might subdivide this into three sub-elements. The first deals with location — determining the desirability of distance from the job site and the degree to which a distant learning site may contribute to learning. The second sub-element is the kind of site — a school classroom, laboratory, on-the-job, or some other kind of conference site. The third sub-element of location is the sponsorship of the site. Is there an advantage to having the site under the wing of the employing organization? Or perhaps it should be sponsored by somebody else, such as a college, a foundation, an association, some other governmental agency, or even a commercial enterprise.

7. *Relationship of the program to other training or other trainees.* Closely tied in with the foregoing steps is the determination as to whether the training may be more effective if it is combined with other training methods, including the mingling of trainees with those of other occupations or other organizations.

8. *Evaluation.* By whom should the evaluation be made, when, how often, or continuously? What methods should we use?

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9. *Reinforcement and reward.* What needs to be done to prevent the nullification of training benefits by continuation of outmoded and negative reinforcement factors? How can we create positive factors back on the job?

Now, this is a list of nine elements somewhat in the order in which the training planner might pick them up. But each of these nine elements operates with a set of variables or options. We might fill in the second dimension. For each of these nine elements, we might choose one or more levels of action depending on whether we are talking about in-house resources or external resources.

On the in-house side, we might identify first the line supervisor, second the local personnel officer or training officer. At the third level, perhaps the manager or a member of his staff, whether this is at the level of warden, the chief of probation, or the director or commissioner. You will recognize that many of these determinations are somewhat arbitrary.

Moving a little way outside the immediate organization, we could select the civil service authority or the central training facilities of the government. Or we might choose another governmental agency operating in a related or unrelated field. Moving all the way outside, we might go to the university, college, associations, public agencies, or other jurisdictions. Then finally, a commercial enterprise whether it is engaged principally in training or trains incidentally to some other main function.

The chart combines these two sets of variables: the first nine elements as decisions to be made and the second set of elements as levels of resources which may be applied against any of the first nine. Element Number 5 has been subdivided into six levels. Not only must we decide who selects the teacher, but we must also decide from which of the six sources the teacher might come.

There may be a mathematician among us who would be amused by calculating the number of permutations and combinations that can be made by this array of choices. I think that it is sufficient to note that our choice is not simply the choice of in-house versus (if you will pardon the term) out-house.

Diagnosis of Needs and Choice of Methods

In discussing organization for training, Element Number 1, the diagnosis, is the horse that must come before the cart. The first step is to identify the mission to which the employees' efforts are to contribute. If we don't keep the mission in mind through all nine elements of the training effort, we may end up with an employee being task-oriented rather than goal-oriented.

The environment or the working climate of the training will be a prime factor in determining the training program and its organization. I think we can adapt an old correctional adage here that we have to start where the trainee is and we also have to keep in mind where he is going to be when the training is over.

The kind of training needed is another prime determination. I should like to give an illustration. If we need to teach new officers locking and counting procedures, there isn't a vocational program, a college, or a government agency which can teach these procedures outside the institution itself. I think we can agree that this sort of mechanical operation is definitely best suited to an in-house operation. On the other hand, if you consider a middle manager who has been nurtured in a single system or institution and has developed tunnel vision, so that he does not know what is going on outside the wall, this need may best

be met by a training situation divorced from the institution as to its organization, conduct, and even its site.

In general, we can distinguish six levels of training needs from the most specific and immediate to the more general and long-range.

At the lowest, first level, we find the replication or the reinforcement of established practices, most of them routine mechanical operations.

At the second level, we have the adaptation or revision of ongoing practices and functions.

The third level is the injection of new program of a fairly limited or specific nature.

The fourth level is the launching of broader, more subtle programs or their integration with ongoing programs.

The fifth level is the inculcation of a totally new philosophy of mission or program or management.

The sixth and final level is the generalized mind-stretching or horizon-broadening kind of program.

Selection of the Trainer

Just as a starter, let us consider the proposition that training must be performed by the expert, by the man who knows most about it. This proposition says that, if you wish to indoctrinate your employees with some basic psychology, you go to a psychologist, whether he is on your staff or the staff of a local university. We had an example of this in one of our institutions where we wanted to teach our officers some basic psychology and counseling techniques. We turned to a local college for assistance. We do not question the fact that the instructor assigned to this program was an expert, in an academic sense, in psychology and counseling techniques. But we learned to our dismay that he lacked the ability to apply this knowledge to real life situations. That is, he did not seem to be able to relate to, influence, or change the students that were assigned to him. He could preach it, but he could not do it himself.

In a narrowly and clearly defined training situation, it may be better to have a non-expert whose substantive knowledge does not go much beyond the scope of the course of study. With such an instructor, you are less likely to waste time on extraneous matters; the instructor stays on the subject. So the proposition that the expert must be a carrier of information or understanding of ideas is not necessarily valid.

Mixing Trainees

Let me say a little more about the mixing of other trainees and the transfer of training content to its direct application on the job.

First, what values of the training experience will be enhanced by mingling the trainee with students from other departments or institutions or other government agencies or even colleges? What criteria do we use in deciding to expose the trainees to new colleagues as well as to new knowledge and skills?

The second consideration is the transfer of learning. First, there is the kind that transfers from the abstract to the concrete, or from the general to the specific. The second kind consists of removing specific concrete training from one setting to another. Would a course in supervision for forest rangers, for instance, be useful training for correctional officers?

I might mention the rapidly growing training device of employee exchange and internships. We have had these for many years, of course, in the medical profession, the military, and the academic world, aimed at encouraging the

cross-fertilization of ideas. We have scholarships and Fulbright grants, Junior Year Abroad, and work-study programs. (In fact, these are growing so much now in higher education that I understand some colleges are going to try a new device called Sophomore Year on Campus.)

Within systems such as the federal, which are large enough to provide this kind of opportunity, there have been policies to encourage movement from one institution to another. There has been much less movement from one organizational specialty to another, to broaden and integrate organizational functions and philosophies. But every organization can cite deplorable examples of the opposite extreme, where there is no rotation, where a man may live out his whole career on a particular tower and even on a particular shift.

Now we have a rapid opening of this technique across organizational lines and even across jurisdictional lines. You are probably familiar with the Muskie Bill (S 699) and a companion administration bill (S 1485) introduced in this session of Congress which would authorize the exchange of federal personnel with state and local employees for periods of up to two years. We understand that there is a very good chance that this bill will be passed in some form by this Congress.

We now have spread out before us an array of ideas and considerations which we might discuss either in generalities or in detail, on the impact of organization upon the training function. I feel very strongly about the question of organization itself. Organization is a process, not a static condition. We must not only change organizations but make the changes themselves, and the process of change, an instrument of management.

I should like to close with a short comment by an observer of university-agency relations.

> Universities are poor institutions for fostering organizational change in other institutions. University commitment is usually limited to brief contact. Academic careers are not built on working closely and over a long time with other institutions on the "mundane" task of operationalizing training. Why, when trainees — and the institutions they represent — want clarity of goals, do university researchers evaluate attitude change? Probably because this can be done in a limited time with no commitment to follow-up. It fits neatly into the academician's time schedule and career line. What follows is a pretty waltz. The [correctional] institution wants to change — but not too much. The university wants to train — but not too long. The Government funder wants [institutional] change — but his granting program limits such change. Hovering above the dance are the spirits of evaluation and research, two gods that are seldom pursued obsessively.

DISCUSSION FROM THE FLOOR

Identification of Training Needs. The presentation has been helpful in that it has dealt with how training is organized. However, it seems that we return to a basic problem that must be addressed before the training takes place, and that is the identification of training needs. What kind of training is needed and who should be trained?

The identification of training needs is very closely related to development and selection of program design. The training needs will depend on the end result desired, and this is intimately related to the goals of the total program. This point is reflected in yesterday's discussion about the need for an ideology. Typically, content and method become the orverriding concern in training, at the expense of ideology.

The identification of training needs is not the exclusive responsibility of any one person. These needs can be identified by the line supervisor, the training officer, the warden or other administrator, an outside government agency, universities, or private agencies.

The potential trainee should not be overlooked as a source of needed identification. Moreover, it should be possible even to use offenders as sources of identifying needs and perhaps involve them in the training.

The fault in much of the training is that it often trains in those areas where a need is well identified, for example, mechanical procedures (how to take counts, lock doors, etc.). Although these are important, they may not be the areas of most imperative training need. There is also a tendency to develop training programs on the basis of critical incidents. Something happens that points up a lack of understanding or some deficiency, and we react by developing a training program. This type of response is indicative of poor planning or organization of training. It also emphasizes the lack of ideology. Knowing the job means more than ability to perform the mechanical, routine operations. It means knowing the goals of the organization; how they are to be achieved; and the contribution and significance of that small segment of activity performed by the individual employee.

The basis for training can be either training for deficiency or training for full development of potential. The former implies a lack of individual capability. It is a negative approach and one that may adversely affect the training climate.

The employee development approach is positive. It implies capability on the part of the learner and confidence in him by the organization. Furthermore, in this time of rapidly changing concepts and techniques, we cannot look back and measure today's performance against yesterday's requirements. If we are training for the future, only some of today's expectations can serve as useful guidelines. This is why training must have an ideological base.

Function of the Training Officer. The selection of instructors can pose difficulties, if the training officer is viewed by the administrator as the logical person to do the training. It is or should be obvious that the range of material to be presented makes it impossible to designate one person as the main training resource.

The training officer's primary function is planning and organizing the training program. He is also the person who can be called upon to fill in if some speaker fails to appear. He should, therefore, always be prepared to substitute or to alter the program. He must also constantly monitor the training to evaluate presentation of material, speakers' preparedness, organization of the preparation, and class response to the instructor.

Use of Experts. Although the agency may have a variety of persons with the expertise to meet many of the training needs, there are subjects which require outside instructors. These people often meet with resistance because they are outsiders or because they don't speak the language of the agency. How can the outside instructor break through this resistance?

Obviously, the instructor must demonstrate competence. He can do this by solid preparation for his presentation. This includes an understanding of correctional terminology so that he can breach the communication barrier. He must also be knowledgeable in correctional problems. For example, if the class is comprised of correctional officers, he must be aware of problems in inmate-officer relations from the officer's point of view.

Typically, however, the outsider will always meet with resistance in the beginning. As he demonstrates an ability to communicate his subject and a sensitivity to the needs of the trainees, he will increase his effectiveness. Some speakers make the error of talking down to their audience, with negative results. Professors, on the other hand, sometimes make the error of giving theoretical presentations which do not appear to be based on reality. In this instance, lack of familiarity with the organization or its operations and functions is evident. It is not sufficient to present theory or principles; it is necessary to link them with practical daily situations. Examples must be given showing the applicability of the theory to various situations. In doing this successfully, the instructor assists the students in organizing their experience in a meaningful way. The ideal instructor would be the person who has both theoretical training and experience and the ability to combine the two. An alternative method would be to have the theoretician followed by a person who can relate the trainees to the practical results of the theory.

A further impediment to effective training is sometimes caused by the fact that there is resistance to change throughout the organization. The outside trainer is viewed as a person whose instruction may create change. How can this be dealt with? Again, we return to ideology. Unquestionably resistance to change is a normal reaction in bureaucracy. There is even more resistance when the nature and consequence of the change are not clear. Massive resistance to change can be expected in an organization where little change has been taking place and where training is a new experience. It can also occur if the top-level administrator who has initiated the training has not clarified the organizational goals.

In some instances, expected resistance is dissipated by training for new roles which encompass an expansion of tasks and responsibilities. In other situations, the quality of leadership may be the determining factor. Training is not a routine procedure and must not be approached routinely. It requires the support of all levels of administration.

Reinforcement of Training. The question here is not how training should be reinforced, but by whom. Typically, everyone is interested in training, but few wish to be involved in it. Also, those doing the training seldom are responsible for reinforcement. This is true of both outside speakers and administrators. We might seek the solution in Mr. Higman's presentation. In that training situation, all the personnel responsible for training actively participated. They demonstrated their interest and concern by attending every session and taking notes. This is an excellent first step. Secondly, they supervised the trainees and evaluated them while the program was in process.

A correctional training program may not be able to require this degree of participation from the group who are the principal reinforcers of training: the supervisors. These are the persons who can most effectively reinforce training. The supervisor evaluates performance, sets expectations, and recommends individuals for pay increases and promotions. In short, he has leverage. He is the person who by his attitude and leadership will reinforce the training.

Rotation as Training. Training in corrections is not consistent in quality, and in many systems it may not exist at all. Furthermore, some systems have training capability and expertise not present elsewhere. How can we make this training available to others? Would it be possible to use facilities where certain training is available to persons outside the system? In this way, an individual could go and pick up certain skills that he could bring back to his system. A variation of this in industry is what is called "rotation" or "programming" — rotating assignments in order to accelerate experience. An engineer, just out of college, has limited value until he has had a couple of years' experience. If he is given a six-month vocational transfer in one area and in another area and another area, from a profesisonal point of view he will get ten years' experience in about two years. The same thing is true with staff and with management.

One of the problems is to convince the organization that rotation is not going to disrupt operations. For instance in a personnel department, the wage and salary man takes charge of employment; the employment man takes charge of training; the training man takes charge of labor relations; and so forth.

Industry's findings have been that people with a fresh environment are very creative. They are like a kid walking into a factory. They point to various procedures and ask, "Why do we do this?" Nobody knows why we do it, only that we have been doing it for ten years. You get this kind of thing from rotation programs. Whenever you can sell it in industry you get tremendous benefits, some that you would not even suspect. From the point of view of the industrial trainer, this is one of the most effective training methods.

Maximizing the Training Experience by the Use of Mixed Groups. In many instances, there is value in mixing correctional and noncorrectional personnel in training. This results in the infusion of ideas from individuals with completely different points of view, who are looking at a problem from another frame of reference. This may be one method of subjecting correctional practice to inquiry and forcing persons to review and justify procedures that have little more than a traditional rationale.

In terms of levels of supervisory and administrative responsibility, the higher up the ladder one goes, the less a correctionalist and the more a manager he becomes. For such a person, advanced training at a place like the Brookings Institution, and perhaps even in industrial executive training programs, may be more applicable. He may find that the problems faced by a correctional manager are not significantly different from those faced by managers in other types of organizations.

EVALUATION OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Carol H. Weiss

The subject of evaluation has already cropped up several times during this seminar. Carl Kludt and Dave Jelinek have stressed the importance of evaluation as an integral part of in-service training. Mr. Kludt talked of the continuing sequence of research-development-implementation-evaluation; Mr. Jelinek presented evaluation as one of the nine basic elements of the training activity.

Along with these supportive statements, earlier speakers have also highlighted some of the perplexities of evaluation. Mr. Kludt said that if evaluation has a good quantitative measure of training effectiveness, like lower repair costs for gauges, that's all to the good. But in many cases, no such indicator of success exists, and then we can ask trainees for their opinions: how they rate the sessions; what they would change if they were to do the training again; what they intend to apply. Training, he emphasized, has definite objectives and is designed to change behavior on the job. But since it is usually difficult to measure behavior change directly, the subjective opinions of trainees provide a stand-in measure.

On the other hand, Mr. Higman's vivid talk showed that training can be disagreeable and stressful and yet be effective. The trainees may dislike it intensely and still learn. In fact, through its very upset of preconceptions and its unpleasantness, it can provide a powerful stimulus to learning.

I think this raises some questions about the measures we use to evaluate training. I would like to come back to this because I think it is one of the vital points in the discussion of evaluation.

What Evaluation Is

First, let us get to a definition of what we mean by evaluation. In the broadest sense, all in-service training is "evaluated" in terms of feasibility, appeal, and informal assessment.

Feasibility is demonstrated by getting the training program going. Funds are found; course objectives, content, and method are developed; instructors are hired from inside or outside the system; trainees are assigned; their jobs are covered while they are in training; a meeting room is provided; people come to sessions; the schedule is followed. In-service training is shown to be a viable activity.

At the same time, the agency gauges the appeal of the training. Agency administrative and training staff learn something about the attitudes of trainees, potential trainees, and their supervisors. They see whether trainees attend sessions regularly, whether they are hostile or enthusiastic, attentive or bored. They find out whether other workers are interested in attending. They learn whether supervisors are pleased, or reluctant, to release workers for training. There is, in short, some indication of the attractiveness of in-service training to the institution.

On another level, everyone involved in a training activity forms some notions of how well the training is going. They all see the project close up,

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and they are aware of the day-to-day occurrences. The administrators and the trainers are knowledgeable people, and they form judgments about the merits of the training by informal, casual conversations and observations.

These kinds of informal evaluations accompany every activity. But what we are talking about this morning is evaluation in its formal sense — systematic and objective research on the outcomes of the training. In evaluation research, objectives of the training are defined, the training objectives are specified in behavioral terms, and measurements are made of the extent to which objectives are achieved.

When Is Evaluation Research Warranted?

When is it worth while to engage in this kind of evaluation? When should an agency seriously embark on evaluation research? I would like to suggest that it is not an ingredient that goes with every training program. I think that there are at least four kinds of circumstances when evaluation research is really *not* warranted.

The first circumstance would be when the kinds of informal assessment we've just mentioned answer the agency's needs. They really don't want to know anything more than that the training program is feasible and accepted and seems to be moving along. There is no need for evaluation, because there are no further questions.

A second case when evaluation is unwarranted is when people in authority have already determined the future of the training program. There may be no funds available for training next year; and, no matter what evaluation might show, there just isn't going to be more training. Or (and I was once in a situation of this sort) the future directions for training have already been settled — training manuals have been printed and distributed; trainers have been trained and assigned to localities; and, whatever happens, the training is going to follow its prescribed course. Evaluation is meant to give direction for action, and when its results are obviously not going to get a hearing, it is a footless undertaking.

Another case that is unsuitable for evaluation is a training program without any clear orientation. Perhaps it is being developed as it goes along, and the nature of the input shifts from day to day. If evaluation research shows that the training has had little effect, this may be not because it was poorly conceived, but because it had not yet jelled. Evaluation is premature. It is better to save the money and evaluate the next time around, when the goals are better defined and the course better run. Similarly, if the trainers can not agree on the purpose of the training — what knowledge, attitudes and behaviors the training is intended to produce — the program is a poor candidate for evaluation. Evaluation looks at the outcomes of a program in terms of the effects it intends to bring about. If there is no consensus on desired ends, evaluation is fruitless — and, parenthetically, the training may be less than sterling, too.

Lastly, if there is no money for evaluation, or if there is no qualified evaluator available, then it is probably better not to start. Evaluation is a demanding business, and it calls for time, money, imagination, tenacity, and skill. Without these, its yield is likely to be low-grade.

Let's look now at the obverse question: When should a program be evaluated? My answer would be: In all cases when an agency really wants to know how good a job the training is doing so that it can do better, and it is willing to support the evaluation in terms of resources and administrative backing.

Identifying the Purpose of Evaluation Research

Within this broad framework, there is latitude for a range of different approaches to evaluation. It is important to specify in advance the particular purposes the evaluation is expected to serve and the use to be made of its results. Otherwise, conflicts in purpose and disparities in expectation are likely to muddy the field. When it comes time to put the findings to use, it may turn out that the data reported are irrelevant to the major concerns of decision-makers.

Let us look at one mythical agency that decides to evaluate its in-service training activities. Although there has been agreement on the decision to evaluate, people in different positions have come to this decision on divergent grounds.

A top administrator has OK'd the evaluation because research — like mother, flag, and education — is a "good thing." He views the evaluation as an indication of the progressive nature of his administration, and about all he intends doing with the report is to bind it in a fancy cover so that he can display the forward-looking stance of his department.

The head of the personnel and training section in this same imaginary agency looks to evaluation to justify the expansion of his program, staff, and budget. He's not looking for a whitewash, but he's sure the program is good and he wants to prove it — with statistics and diagrams.

One of the trainers has conceived of the evaluation as a way of finding out which training methods and techniques are most effective. He is seriously interested in comparing the merits of lectures, films, programmed instruction, small group discussion, and field trips. Although this is a possible and seemingly plausible approach to evaluation, experience indicates that this type of research is conducted more appropriately and with sounder results in controlled laboratory-like settings. In agency training programs, it is very seldom possible to approximate the experimental conditions necessary, nor does such research tell much about the effectiveness of the total training program.

Another trainer expects the evaluation to provide immediate feedback to help in the day-to-day improvement of the training program. He is thinking of minor alterations — changes in seating and room arrangements, in length of sessions and scheduling, in methods of presentation, in the size of the group trained, or in the "mix" of trainees from different divisions and different hierarchical levels. With rigorous experimental and control conditions, research can collect hard evidence on such topics. But during the usual kind of ongoing training program, evaluators would have to rely on current opinions of trainees and trainers and possibly some speculations of their own. An agency evaluation geared to such questions would probably do little more than collect by written questionnaires what the trainer could find out by asking for people's opinions himself. Nor would the agency learn much about the longer-run effects of its training efforts.

Let us assume that there is another character in this story — we'll call him a staff development supervisor. He was the initiator of the evalution idea, and he holds more traditionally accepted views of the purpose of this evaluation — to gauge objectively the extent to which the training program is meeting the goals for which it was established. This is what evaluation is intended to do.

Unfortunately, despite the need for clarity in setting objectives that has been stressed by previous speakers here, training objectives in real life tend to be stated fuzzily, if at all, and to glitter with untestable abstractions. They may range from getting workers to fill out forms properly, to making custodial

officers "treatment-oriented," to imparting understanding of the role of correctional institutions in contemporary American society.

Nevertheless, despite the haziness, staff development programs have definite behavioral objectives. Staff training is intended to improve the worker's job performance. He's supposed to *do* something after training that he didn't do before, or do it in a discernibly different way.

With the help of a skilled evaluator, intended changes in knowledge, attitudes, and performance can be identified, and specific indicators of change developed. Then this kind of evaluation can lead to wide-ranging conclusions on the strengths and weaknesses of the training program in meeting its objectives. If put to use, conclusions from such a study could lead to useful revisions in the whole training program.

There may be a further purpose for evaluation. It can go beyond assessing how well the training is meeting the objectives set by the agency and look at how well it contributes to broader social aims. That is, evaluators need not accept the agency's statement of training objectives as the final word. They can bring in further standards. For example, an agency's staff development program may be designed to teach workers certain casework skills. Traditional evaluation shows that the training succeeds; workers become good caseworkers. But with the given setting, program, clientele, and aims of the agency, these casework skills turn out to be irrelevant or inappropriate. The ultimate social aims are not being met. It is like a tribe doing a superlative job of training its shamans in the intricate rituals of rain-making. They perform faultlessly, and the trainers are satisfied. But the evaluator asks a further question: Does it rain?

To embark on an evaluation of this type indicates a willingness to question traditional assumptions. If the evaluation shows negative results, the agency will have to consider the revision of its training objectives and changes in deep-rooted assumptions and ideas.

The purposes set for evaluation have important consequences for the kind of evaluation that is done and the kinds of conclusions that emerge. It is essential that the purposes be specifically identified and their possible effects be faced up to as soon as the idea of conducting an evaluation is considered. When staff at different levels have different purposes and expectations in mind and the differences are ignored instead of being resolved, the evaluation will suffer. Helen Witmer said this very well:

> What is to be achieved by undertaking this study? What do those who want the study hope to achieve? What usefulness may the findings have? The fact that questions such as these are seldom squarely faced and answered is what accounts, in considerable part, both for the dissatisfaction of many consumers of research, including program administrators, with the findings of studies and also for the rather muddled character of many studies themselves.[1]

Measures of the Effectiveness of Training

Let's get back now to measures of effectiveness and some of the comments made earlier on what an evaluation should measure. How will we know if we have an effective training program? What kinds of indicators of success do we use?

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[1] Helen L. Witmer, "A Brief Guide to the Evaluation of Measures for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency," *International Review of Criminal Policy*, XXI (Summer 1963), 34.

Opinions of Trainees

Many evaluations rely on the opinions of trainees. They are asked what sessions they liked, which they got the most from, how satisfied they were with the training, and similar things. There is some value in this. In some areas, trainees' opinions are the true criterion. If you ask them whether assignments were clear, they are the ones who know. In other cases, trainees' satisfaction may be an intervening variable between their attending the course and applying its learnings.

But a training program is designed to accomplish a purpose. In many situations, the trainees are not likely to be qualified judges as to whether the purpose was achieved. Trainees may have hazy or unrealistic expectations of what the training is for. They may like or dislike it for reasons that are not closely related to the intent.

I remember doing an evaluation of the training for the Domestic Peace Corps program in Harlem a few years ago. I looked directly at the relationship between trainees' satisfaction with the training and their subsequent changes in knowledge, in attitude, and in job performance. There was no relation whatsoever between satisfaction and any of the other measures of effectiveness that we used. Therefore, it seems to me that the popularity contest model for evaluation is a questionable one.

Changes in Trainees' Knowledge

I'd like to mention five other kinds of measures that can be used. One is changes in trainees' knowledge. Training programs usually aim to impart information or concepts or theories. Tests can be administered before and after the training. The question is, "Did the trainees hear and understand and remember what was said?" Of course, there are sometimes problems with this. I talked with a man who was running training for juvenile court judges, and he said that you cannot test the judge. In other settings, as well, it is sometimes hard to administer what looks like a school test to trainees. But with ingenuity, measures of this type can be both palatable and informative.

Changes in Trainees' Attitudes

The second kind of measure is changes in attitude. Where the training intends to influence attitudes and values, for example toward tolerance of minority viewpoints, measures of attitude can be useful. The testing of changes in attitude is particularly important when training aims to change the way the worker perceives his role and function in the agency and his orientation to practice. Attitude measures reveal the extent to which job-relevant perceptions and attitudes undergo change.

Predisposition to Practice

A third type of measure is predisposition to practice. This measure concerns trainees' perception of the legitimacy and the usefulness of the new learning. The first two measures show to what extent the trainees understood and remembered the training content and to what extent they changed in certain attitudes and functional orientations. But do they see the training content as being useful to their own work? A probation officer may learn about and accept, in theory, a therapeutic rather than a control approach to juvenile probationers. But does he see this as a proper role for a probation agency? Is it a useful approach to take in his particular job? Does he believe his supervisors and his colleagues go along with it?

Further, does the trainee intend to put his learning into practice? Does he see ways of applying it? Does he think that he can make the transfer to the job? When and how?

Whatever his predispositions, the probability that the trainee will actually apply what he has learned depends in part on conditions outside of the training and outside of himself. The structure of the job may make application impossible. His supervisor might not agree with the new ideas that he received from the training course. His colleagues may think that they are pretty ridiculous and give him a hard time. The system of rewards and sanctions in the agency may militate against the practice of new learning. There has to be a system of reinforcement and reward for the new behavior.

These are very important elements in seeing that training survives the return to the job. If trainees want to apply their training, and are prevented by supervisory or staff actions, by divergent client expectations, by structural blocks in the organization, or other barriers, this is an important finding from evaluation. It should lead to an investigation of the appropriateness of the curriculum for existing agency conditions, as well as to study of the appropriateness of the agency system of rewards and sanctions to the kinds of change the training is trying to get across.

Changes in Job Performance

A further measure that evaluation can use is changes in job performance. To what extent have trainees introduced the new or improved practices into their own work? I have picked up examples, from some recent studies, of behavioral measures that have been used on job performance. Have there been changes in the frequency of referral of inmates to educational or treatment programs? Has there been a change in the way correctional officers supervise the movement of their groups, *i.e.,* have they let them stroll and walk instead of marching? Are more disciplinary actions taken in the unit rather than referred to higher authority? Has there been an increase in individual or group counseling?

Where desired changes in practice relate more to increased insight and improved style than to changes in function, measurement is more difficult. Ratings by supervisors are sometimes used, although such ratings often tell you more about the supervisor than about the worker. Ideally, ratings should be "blind," with the rater unaware of whether the subject was or was not in the training group. Often this is impossible to contrive. But very carefully defined supervisory ratings can sometimes be useful. Other measures of work performance that have been used are reports by administrators, by workers themselves, and by clients. One current study of probation workers is asking probationers before and after the training what their worker is actually doing. What specific things does he talk about? What kinds of help does he give? This is one way of trying to find out whether the probation officer's behavior has changed.

The more the evaluation can deal with specific acts that demonstrate desirable practice, the better the data are likely to be. I do not want to minimize the difficulties of measuring job behavior, but it has been done and we are continuing to learn how to do it better.

Effect on the Client

A final type of measure for evaluation is the effect on the client. The ultimate value of any in-service training program lies in its effects on the people whom the trained worker serves. Measurements of this kind of effect

will not be necessary in most instances where experience has already proved the worth of the particular training that is being given. But in experimental training programs where innovations in theory and content are introduced, it may be important to go on and look at effects on the client population. Are there differences in client outcome between trained and untrained workers? Do the beneficiaries of service of trained workers show less recidivism, higher aspirations, greater optimism about their future, higher school achievement, or changes in other measures appropriate to the particular population?

Of course, the farther away these goals are from the training in terms of time and intervening contacts, the harder it is to attribute the differential client outcomes to the training program. If evaluation should follow the data-gathering process outlined here, and discover at Stage 1 that the trainees did not grasp the concepts of the training, or at Stage 4 that they never put them into practice, then it is useless to talk about the training causing any changes in clients. But if the evaluation has built a model of successive inputs and relationships, and if it can show differential learning, differential job performance, and differential client outcome, then it is coming closer to an evaluation of the content of the curriculum. Evaluation can determine whether those who are trained know more of what was taught; whether those who know more, perform better, that is, more in line with what the training has prescribed; whether those who are performing in the approved manner are having more success with clients. No longer is the evaluation dealing only with the training methods and techniques and the extent to which they succeed in transmitting messages. The evaluation in this case extends to the messages themselves and their social utility in agency practice.

Evaluation as a Guide to Change

The evaluation is thus a three-part analysis:

1. Do the trainees learn? Have they shown changes in knowledge, attitude, and predisposition to apply new knowledge? If not, changes should be made in the training program.

2. Do the trainees put their learning into practice? If not, the operation and organization of the agency should be examined for any barriers it may be presenting to the utilization of the training.

3. Do the trainees who practice what they learn have better results with their clients? If not, the agency should re-examine what it is teaching.

A very interesting evaluation is being done by Ward and Kassebaum in California on group counseling in an adult institution. This appears to be a particularly well-designed evaluation. It is being conducted in a new institution. Inmates were randomly assigned to each of the four cell blocks, and there was very little intermixing of inmates from different blocks. In one of the blocks, all the inmates received group counseling from trained counselors. In another, nobody received group counseling. In a third, the inmates received group counseling and had some kind of self-government as well. The fourth block, with a population of special cases, was not included in the study. The evaluators are following the inmates during their time in the institution and up to two years after their release. They appear to be finding that, after the inmates have been out for two years, the men in the group counseling units are not doing any better in terms of recidivism than the control group. This is an example of a study that looks beyond the effects of the training on the trainees to its effects on the ultimate target group.

In most cases, much less extensive evaluation is called for. Often, there's a fairly simple measure that will answer the really significant question about effectiveness. For example, in the Vera Bail Bond project, the only measure needed in the evaluation was the proportion of people released on their own recognizance who showed up in court. When it turned out that just as high a proportion appeared as among those released on bail, the worth of the program was demonstrated. In some Higher-Horizons-type programs, the pay-off measure is the proportion of youngsters who stay in school, graduate, or go on to higher education.

The important thing is that evaluation deal with the kinds of acts that the training is designed to produce. In that way, it provides significant information that helps in planning and replanning training programs to yield the greatest return in worker knowledge and competence.

QUESTION AND ANSWER

A number of questions were asked of Mrs. Weiss after her presentation. One seemed so important to corrections that the answer is reproduced here.

Q: Who does the evaluation? That is, what kinds of evaluation does the agency itself assume the responsibility for, and what kinds of evaluation does the agency feel have to be farmed out in order to get independent, "objective" evaluation?

A: There are several factors involved in who should do the evaluation. One is the question of confidence. It is vital that administrators have confidence in the professional skills of the evaluation staff. Sometimes an agency is impressed only by the credentials and reputation of academic researchers and assumes that its own people are second-raters. Or, conversely, it may view outside evaluators as too remote from the realities, too ivory-tower and abstract, to produce information of practical value. Occasionally it is important to ensure public confidence in the evaluation results by engaging evaluators who have no relation to and no stake in the program to be studied. Competence, of course, is a big factor in ensuring confidence and should be given particular attention.

A second consideration is objectivity. Evaluation should be insulated as far as possible from any manipulation or bias in interpretation that will make things look good. I don't want to imply that in-house evaluation is per se less objective than research done by independent outsiders. Some of the best evaluation I know has been done by agency staff members who used "hard" measures of effectiveness and treated the data with scrupulous integrity. But objectivity needs to be considered.

Third is the question of closeness to the program. Evaluators should know what is really going on in the program. They can't accept the written plan as a true reflection of the training, because shifts and changes can significantly alter its intent and thrust. Unless they know what actually happened, what the training consisted of in operation, they'll be evaluating a phantom program and attributing effects, or no effects, to a program that never took place. They need to know, too, what the real isues are that the agency is seeking answers to.

A fourth factor is utilization of results. You want the conclusions that emerge from evaluation to get a hearing in decision-making councils. Sometimes outsiders, with their prestige and authority, are best suited to ensure that

the agency uses the results of evaluation. Sometimes it is staff members on the spot, who attend all the meetings and have regular access to management, who can see that evaluation results are heard.

The four considerations have to be balanced out against each other. The decision on whether the evaluation should be done by a university, an independent research organization or consulting firm, or by the agency's own research staff has to be made in terms of the operant factors in each situation. There is no one "right" site for evaluation. Current needs and conditions have to be weighed in each individual case.

DISCUSSION

David Twain

There is a difference between research and evaluation. You can do a specific kind of very technical research. On the other hand, from a management standpoint, you can do a job of evaluating that may not be as sophisticated. You don't have to research every training project.

Yesterday, Carl Kludt made some other distinctions between research and evaluation. Research adds power to the program and requires continuous support. Evaluation is also a part of the ongoing program; it takes place at the end of the sequence. Thus, we have research, development, implementation, and evaluation and revision. The research gives us objective data and some conclusions; evaluation is our judgment of the findings in terms of usefulness of the program. The implication is that research, evaluation, programming, feedback and so on are largely a management responsibility. Now that may apply as much to industry as it does to correctional manpower.

There are different kinds of research. Some research is generic. For example, someone wants to know the nature of violent behavior or the nature of the dynamic relationships between women in correctional institutions, and he asks specific questions. On the other hand, some of the best training and the best research in the past five or six years in the crime and delinquency area has been process-oriented. The investigator had the goal of taking a close look at the program with the objective of possibly modifying it. Incidentally, it also served to train psychologists and others who were involved. That was a good example of on-the-job training, learning about programs. The various people involved, the line officers in the institutions, really scrutinized the program and in this way learned different facets of it.

A good researcher doesn't wear a white coat. He is an expert in asking the right questions. He has to do enough casing of the joint and working with the administration to find out what the right questions are. His expertise comes in knowing how to frame the questions in such a way that they will be answerable. This is process research as opposed to the generic type. It is not very different from working with the training program, or whatever kind of endeavor you are in, where you ask questions.

Evaluation should not be attempted unless there is a clear definition of the questions to be answered. The skills of the evaluator come into play here,

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since not only does he know how to find out what the important questions are but he also has other skills. These include translating questions into a context where they can be answered with the resources at hand.

To what extent is the researcher responsible for the research results? In many cases of research and evaluation, the researcher is not only unconcerned with the uses of the results of the studies, but he also feels that his role is to remain neutral. His job, he thinks, ends when the study is completed, and he should not get involved in the give-and-take of organizational politics and decision-making. He feels no responsibility for interpreting the research findings and pointing out their implications for the agency. Instead, the evaluator should be responsible for pointing out the implications of some of the changes that derive logically from research. Once you change one thing, a lot of other things are going to change. These points are closely interrelated if you measure some of the changes in program that the research seems to imply.

There is another way to talk about all this. There is a word that has not been used in this connection, and that is "commitment." We have talked about commitment — commitment of the institution to the training and commitment of institutional administrators or program administrators. Now, we are talking about the commitment of the researcher or the outside expert or the consultant to his participation in the program. He knows when he begins the study that he has a commitment. Sometimes it is difficult for a certain level of staff to really understand that he has that commitment to the findings and to their implications. One of the ways to look at this is: You do not do research, you do not do evaluation, you don't even fool around with program changes, unless you have a commitment and unless you are communicating with and are supported by the administrator.

Not only is it necessary to bring the researcher into the institution but some top-level manager — for example, the man who is responsible for planning — has to begin to adapt himself to the results of the study, and the questions have to be asked in such a way that they can be used right along. There are ways to ask questions so that the data can be used this way. Otherwise you get faddism. You can ask the right questions and modify the program accordingly.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE SEMINAR FOR CORRECTIONS

Vincent O'Leary
Ronald Vander Wiel

Mr. O'Leary:

Ron Vander Wiel and I were asked to play the role of summarizers, to react to material presented in this seminar, and to try to relate it to the field of corrections. To this end, I should like to present some data drawn from the work of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, usually referred to as the National Crime Commission. Hopefully, these data may help to relate to corrections some of the issues that the speakers have raised over the last two days. They may also help to underscore some issues that strike me as particularly important for the field.

Our first speaker pointed out the need to look at jobs and the styles of training required in line with the skills needed in those jobs. Our second speaker gave illustrations of methods which are appropriate for training in the various behavioral areas. It might be helpful in translating their remarks to the field of corrections to think about them in relation to data derived from a survey which the National Council on Crime and Delinquency made for the National Crime Commission. The data cover the year 1965, but since they make up the only nationwide picture we shall have until the Joint Commission reports, I shall refer to them as current.

Correctional Manpower and Training Needs

Table 1 shows the number of correctional personnel in the United States, grouped according to a rough classification scheme for which our chairman, Dr. Frank, can bear at least partial responsibility. This scheme divides correctional personnel into four groups according to their functions in correctional systems. While there is considerable heterogeneity among the groups, they are sufficiently distinct to permit some generalizations about the training and manpower needs in each category. The four groups are: custodians, largely made up of guards in adult institutions and group supervisors in juvenile institutions; technicians, which includes such employees as secretaries and cooks; specialists, which includes psychiatrists, psychologists, teachers, and the like; and lastly, case managers, who are mainly institutional caseworkers and probation and parole officers.

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Mr. Vander Wiel is associate director of the American Foundation Institute of Corrections.

Table 1

Number of Correctional Employees, by Functional Categories, 1965

Category	Number	Percentage distribution
Custodial personnel	63,184	52
Technicians	33,906	28
Specialists	6,657	6
Case managers	17,416	14
Total	121,163	100

Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 95.

It will be seen that the largest group, the 63,000 custodians, make up over half of all correctional personnel today. All the custodians work in institutions.

The next largest group is the 34,000 technicians. Most of them work in institutions, although a sizable number of clerical personnel are employed in probation and parole agencies.

Most of the 6,600 specialists also work in institutions. Some, however, work in community correctional programs.

The 17,400 case managers are caseworkers and probation and parole officers. They work in both juvenile and adult institutions and community programs.

All of these figures, as I have stated, are for 1965. But they are suggestive of the magnitude of manpower requirements and the training job to be done.

Other data from the Crime Commission's report on corrections suggest the character of manpower and training needs in the years immediately ahead of us. The estimates of future manpower needs were derived by applying the "best" available standards to the number of offenders we are likely to have. This figure is a projection to 1975 of the number of offenders in 1965, holding constant the trends in population, crime rates, and sentencing practices.

Table 2

Manpower Requirements for American Corrections, 1965 and 1975, by Personnel Categories

Personnel category	Number employed, 1965	Number needed, 1965	Number needed, 1975
Custodial personnel	63,184	89,600	114,000
Technicians	33,906	60,300	81,000
Specialists	6,657	20,400	28,000
Case managers	17,416	55,000	81,000
Total	121,163	225,300	304,000

Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *op. cit.*, p. 99.

The data show, for example, that we will need by 1975 something like 81,000 case managers in institutions, probation, and parole. This is four and a half times the number we had in 1965. We may be able to buy some of the services of case managers from other agencies. We may be able to have some service provided by subprofessional employees and by volunteers. But we will need to achieve that level of service.

Now, shifting away from an analysis of sheer manpower needs, let's look at some of the kinds of problems we'll have in providing the training needed by personnel we now have and those we'll need in the future. To begin with, there is a clear need to provide much more effective training at the managerial level. We have more than 17,000 people in middle-management positions in corrections today, including all kinds of supervisors and administrators.* If corrections is to improve, significant changes in practice are needed. This means particularly great demand for creative management. Coupling this need with the growing correctional population clearly shows significant need for programs which will improve the skills of correctional managers. We must discover quickly how we provide this kind of training in the United States.

In terms of specialists, it is quite doubtful that, even if we had all the money required, we would be able to get the 28,000 personnel we will shortly need in corrections. We are going to have to be much more effective in developing resources outside corrections for use in our field. We are also going to have to analyze the tasks in corrections which are now performed by the specialists, to see which can be undertaken by persons with less than full professional training. This will require extensive job analysis, a task on which I hope the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training will move forward. It will also require us to devise training programs for persons with various kinds and levels of skill to provide some of the specialists' services.

The problems in the case manager group are somewhat similar. Using current standards, we are already about 37,000 case managers short. I am not sure just how many M.S.W.'s are now employed in this country, but I am sure that we will not obtain the 81,000 case managers needed by 1975 from M.S.W. ranks. Again it appears that a significant part of the answer is to break up jobs, so that their component parts can be performed by differentially trained persons.

Importance of Central Training Organizations

For those of us who are interested in training for corrections, the tasks ahead are indeed formidable. They are not made simpler by the lack of administrative mechanisms through which correctional training can be provided. In a survey recently completed for the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes sent out questionnaires to over 1,100 institutional and community-based correctional agencies across the country. They asked the question: "Do you have an organized in-service training program?" Of the institutions which replied, 197 answered in the affirmative and 137 in the negative. Of the answers from probation and parole agencies, 359 were positive, and 448 were negative. Thus, of over 1,100 systems surveyed, more than half reported no organized in-service training program at all.

The picture is actually more dismal than this proportion indicates. Even among agencies which reported an in-service training program, there were

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* *Managers are included in each of the four functional categories of personnel discussed above.*

sharp differences in quality. For example, some of the so-called training programs meet once a year.

Not only is there a lack of training programs within agencies but there is also the problem of how to organize programs for the various agencies spread out across a state. In addition to a system of state prisons and juvenile institutions, in most states there is a jail here, a detention home there, a lone adult probation or parole officer somewhere else, and many independent probation systems for juveniles. But seldom is there a central unit which can provide, or at least plan, training for them all.

One of our reasons for meeting here was to become familiar with the program of the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance through which the states are invited to apply for federal funds to develop central training organizations. The latest information I had was that such grants have been made to five states.

It seems to me we should be quite concerned about the nature of these central training organizations. In my view, their development represents one of the most critical phases in a national effort to upgrade training in corrections. How such organizations are molded and who is participating can well spell what the state programs are going to look like in the years ahead. In a real sense, the capacity and potential of these agencies are being fixed now.

This seminar has been an example of an interdisciplinary meeting. It was valuable to have persons from non-correctional settings as participants. I think their contributions made it a particularly rich meeting for all of us. The question in my mind is whether this kind of interdisciplinary ferment is going on in the training organizations now being developed across the United States. We must bring the kind of technology it represents into corrections, where it is so badly needed.

Basic Ideology of Corrections

Let us turn to another major area we have touched on during this seminar. The issue which has been referred to as the "ideology" or "strategy" problem is one of the most fundamental in the correctional field. In thinking about this issue, it is important to realize that it is a mistake to talk about and plan for corrections as if it were primarily an institutional program. The fact is that, although institutions command a considerable amount of correctional resources, they are not where the majority of adjudicated offenders are today. Only a third of such offenders are in prisons, training schools, or detention homes; two-thirds of them are in the community on probation or parole. Another considerable mistake is to forget that we are talking about a juvenile as well as an adult system.

The point I would like to make here is that our planning strategy must recognize where the offenders are located and where they should be located. Now, although some high officials in law enforcement would argue against it, the general trend in this country is for offenders to be located in the community. The Crime Commission's report supports that trend and contends that it should accelerate. It has some specific implications for training strategy.

Recently, we have seen a developing concern in corrections about the community as a target of change. The notion that the offender is a person with defects which have to be cured is giving way to the view that part of the problem lies not so much in the offender as in the social system in which he lives. If that is true, how do we start changing the world which defines to the offender what his place is in it? How are we going to train a substantial num-

ber of correctional personnel to equip them for changing communities? This is not a familiar style in corrections. It is not generally supported by the ideologies of corrections.

We have many probation and parole officers who work well with the community. But because of the lack of ideological support, these kinds of officers generally do not achieve pre-eminence in the field. The therapist is the most cherished practitioner role. The officer who can get a parolee a job is always welcome on staff, but he is rarely sent to meetings to represent the agency. We are now beginning to recognize the necessity to legitimate these kinds of skills as well as those of the therapist. This places a great deal of emphasis on a new kind of training that our community agency must have.

Another implication is in the process of goal-setting. As Carl Kludt talked about this process yesterday, goal-setting takes place in a closed system. In corrections, however, it is imperative that other kinds of agencies be represented as well. For example, police departments have considerable influence on the direction of community corrections. Anyone who has worked in the field knows that they have very significant and important controls. Courts, too, have such controls. Correctional workers need sharpened skills in joint goal-setting if they are going to involve successfully those who have important stakes in the process.

It is also important that we refuse to think of institutions in the future as they are today. We may be stuck now with huge, isolated stone and concrete prisons that go back 160 years, but the emphasis is clearly on moving institutions closer to the community. This trend will bring with it the requirement for new kinds of training, particularly for custodial officers, training in terms of relating not only to inmates but also to the community. Having moved institutions close to the community, we may need to create correctional personnel in them who can rock some boats if the community is going to be sufficiently motivated to change.

Another ideological issue which has important training implications is the developing role of corrections in the intake process. Only 10 percent of some types of crime are ever reported to the police in many areas, and 75 percent of all property offenses are never cleared by arrest. Many persons who have committed offenses never get into the correctional system and, of those arrested, many are dropped out in the screening process. Today intake decisions are too often made inadequately. Correctional personnel need to develop and apply skills to help make these judgments much more effectively. The notion of a correctional worker making his services available to a prosecutor and defense attorney when the decision is being made to prosecute or not to prosecute, is relatively new; but it is becoming more and more widely accepted. It is already common in the juvenile field.

A Strategy of Search

All of these demands on corrections have tremendous implications for training. Even more profound are the implications of the concept of differential training. Increasing evidence shows that there is no single optimum training model or perhaps organizational style. We need to know how an authoritarian regime works with some trainees, how a democratic institution works for others. This is an issue subject to testing. Only as we get some information on it can we expect training to be effective. This in turn relates to Carl Kludt's discussion of the way we work between training and research. A basic problem in corrections is that we know precious little about a number of things.

La Mar Empey uses the term "strategy of search" to describe the process of articulating what we are about and measuring to see whether we are approaching the goal we have set. As we think about evaluating programs, the need to provide continuous checking will receive increasing attention. It may well be that, for some training programs, the evaluation is not something which is done *to* the trainee, as by requiring him to fill out a questionnaire or take a test. It may well be that there are other devices or procedures in which the evaluation is made a part of the design and we build into the training program measurement of our approach to the goal we are seeking. By so doing, we make the criterion clear to the trainees so that they gauge their performance against it and work *with* the researcher in a collaborative way.

Mr. Vander Wiel:

What kind of commitments are we prepared to make? To what, and why? What is it we are going to be trying to do in corrections generally? More specifically, what are we trying to do in terms of training enterprises directed at the answers to questions as to what corrections is about. There is also the question of why we are going to do what we are going to do. The selection of styles relative to these kinds of problems is a difficult one; certain approaches are appropriate for certain kinds of populations. There is also the question of the commitment that people have relative to training generally. One of the hazards lies in what the sociologists call manifest and latent functions. There is a manifest statement: We want this for this. But as a matter of fact there is something else, or some other end, that we are seeking to serve. Sometimes these things don't go well together.

The same is true in regard to ideology, a phrase used here several times. We have to keep ideology very clearly in mind as we plan or attempt to implement training strategies of the kind that seem indicated. What are we buying into when we implement a particular kind of training program or a particular kind of training methodology? Sometimes sensitivity training, for example, can be very destructive to an organization. People come back from the training and sensitize a lot of other people, and a very uncomfortable atmosphere results. At least, this is the complaint of some people who have had to live with those who have been sensitized.

Also in terms of the commitments and ideologies, what are we avoiding as well as what are we buying into? Sometimes we use these training devices as a way of avoiding certain things; or we want to use them to alter an existing situation; or we want to use them to create. But very frequently we don't know which of these things we are doing. Are we buying into something, are we avoiding, are we altering, are we creating? What proportions of each of these things exist in any kind of training effort?

Administrators frequently complain that they don't know what is happening in a training program. Why they don't know is another question altogether.

We also have the question of the capacity of the system, both in terms of facilities and resources such as personnel, finances, knowledge, and actual capability. By way of example, take the training officer role. Everybody talks about acquiring training officers, and Southern Illinois University is training them. But how available are they going to be? Are they in fact going to be utilized when they go back to their home bases? How marketable are they going to be even within their own system? Are they going to have any place to go? Is there anything for them in this kind of enterprise? These questions have come up in a variety of contexts.

Another important point was touched on by both Carol Weiss and David Twain — the training implications of non-specific training activities. That is, the kinds of program and projects that are going on in institutions are very seldom acted on with regard to their training potential. For example, you get involved in the development of a new program, and you involve a variety of people in it. But you don't really work at the training possibilities that exist as you get people doing new kinds of things. There is a good possibility of their achieving some training benefits that are not acted on as often as possible. And the training is self-training.

One example of an area that has potential for self-training can be identified if a correctional administrator checks to see whether his staff are telling him what they think he wants to hear or what the real truth of the situation is. This is a common problem that people complain about. I don't know of too many administrators who do work on themselves, as it were, to try to develop their capacity to free up their staff to really tell them how things are going.

This whole business of change in corrections has to be related to the total social context within which it occurs. This is the point that really impressed me about Vince O'Leary's remarks. It's neither possible nor desirable to have change occur without the involvement of the other institutions in society. If nothing else, the lack of available manpower is going to insure that. We have to share with others and get help from them. All too frequently, correctional agencies have talked as though they were going to recruit all the available people. But the same thing is occurring in the welfare agencies in the community and the educational institutions. Everybody is sure that he has to have the kind of people he wants. Everybody has to have his psychiatrist, his caseworker, his psychologist. But it's just not in the picture. It isn't going to happen that way. The impact and use of other institutions in society — the legal institutions, the welfare institutions, the health institutions, the educational institutions — must be considered. But very frequently we act as though corrections is something separate and apart. The development of new models of ways in which these institutions can exploit each other still awaits us.

Who's going to define what kind of person we need for what kind of a task is a question we have dealt with on many occasions. But the changing role that Vince O'Leary is suggesting to us probably is going to mean that most of the present kinds of training may not be too helpful to us. If we get these new breeds, these new kinds of probation officers that are suggested in some of the Crime Commission reports, we set a different kind of function for them. They get less involved with the direct services and more in the community organization. We may have some problems here. The kinds of people that Howard Higman is turning loose would scare the wits out of some of the people in the city of Philadelphia. I think his trainers did a pretty good job for Colorado, New Mexico, and Utah. But in Philadelphia this would be bad news all the way.

Who is going to support the new kinds of people? I think of some new professional roles and some universities that are training people for them. Let me give you one example. In at least one part of the country, a new breed of cat is being trained in the university. He is called the Rehabilitation Counselor. He gets some psychology; he gets some of this, some of that. But he can't join any one of the professional associations. "He ain't one of ours" is their response. And he has a very difficult time trying to find some sense of identification. If we are going to create these people and then leave them without any

way of saying what they are in terms of other practitioners, we have laid out a hard way for them to go.

Finally, we tend to talk in terms of "we" and "they," of parole, probation, and prison personnel, of workers with juveniles and adults, male and female. All of us who have been in probation or parole operations know how hard it is to get our people and the prison people together for meetings. The parole and probation people sit here, the prison people there. If you work very hard, you can get them to sit down and eat together, but before long they are right back with their buddies. It's a very difficult task to get the kind of dialogue we are talking about, to get interaction and planning for and with each other. If Vince O'Leary is right, this artificial division can't go on. I suspect, though, that it is very likely to continue unless we do something rather different from what we are doing now.

DISCUSSION FROM THE FLOOR

Use of expertise from outside corrections: This meeting has demonstrated the importance of taking a non-parochial approach to correctional problems. The participants included individuals from the correctional field, from universities, and from industry. As each speaker from industry made his presentation, it became increasingly apparent that industry has made tremendous progress in the development of training. Numerous training models have been tried and tested, and new ones are being developed.

Training techniques and organizational arrangements in use by industry are applicable to corrections, if correctional administrators will only have the courage to use them. Too often there is a reluctance to do so because the content of non-correctional programs does not seem applicable. This objection has no validity. Corrections is capable of giving substance to these training techniques if it will only use imagination. Industrial training techniques for the development of supervisors, managers, and executives are pertinent to corrections and need little modification. Specifically, the principles of supervision and management are extremely pertinent for corrections.

The industrial trainer is an important training source. He brings with him an extensive knowledge of differential training techniques. His effectiveness can be increased by better communication between him and corrections. We must give him an understanding of correctional problems and goals, so that he can apply the kind of training that is appropriate to the situation. If the industrial trainer is viewed as a resource person rather than simply as an instructor-participant, his true potential becomes clear.

Correctional administrators should therefore not hesitate to utilize the expertise of the industrial trainer. They must begin to recognize the similarities between industry and corrections. In both, we are dealing with large systems, where many people must be coordinated, where goals must be set and people trained to achieve them.

Coordination in the field of corrections: The Crime Commission report has made visible the multi-system nature of corrections. The lack of coordination between systems and even within systems poses a problem with no immediate solution. This has implications for training. We cannot train if the individuals within a system see their roles directed toward different goals.

Field services and institution personnel cannot continue to exist side by side as separate and distinct groups, having differentially perceived functions and objectives.

The organization of training must be directed toward solving the problem of these artificial dichotomies. Otherwise the training will only emphasize and reflect the fragmentation.

The shift in emphasis to the community makes it necessary that new roles be defined and programs developed to train persons in these roles. The discarding of the "defect" concept of the offender and the acceptance of the theory that both the offender and the community must be changed is a case in point. The implementation of the latter concept will not take place merely by virtue of its acceptance. New roles for the field agent must be formulated. The goals of the agency must be redefined, perhaps with concomitant new organizational arrangements.

In the process, corrections must recognize the importance of the community and its other social agencies. The need for coordination is clear, particularly coordination between corrections and the gatekeepers (police and prosecuting attorneys). These groups serve as significant inputs to corrections. The training of field staff must be directed toward increasing their effectiveness, so that they in turn can influence change in the community and its institutions.

The ideological gap between those who believe in the "offender defect" approach and those who accept the "offender and community change" approach can be diminished through a dialogue that uses training as a vehicle. Otherwise we will have two competing ideologies, not only between agencies but also within agencies. The fragmented nature of corrections in such an instance not only will extend to the administrative organization but will encompass the whole ideological base. Training must not therefore be organized within a closed system. It should make use of outside resources and outside participants.

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